

# **EDUCATION OF GIRLS IN INDIA**

*Progress and Prospects*



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## *Progress and Prospects*

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राष्ट्रीय शैक्षिक अनुसंधान और प्रशिक्षण परिषद्  
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## Foreword

EDUCATION of girls and women is an area of major national concern both as a development imperative and as a human right. India's performance on Human Development is not very heartening. We need to be conscious of the fact that even today we are at the 128th rank (value 0.563) on Human Development Index (HDI), 108th rank (value) on the Gender Development Index (GDI) in 1999 and 95th rank (value 0.240) on the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) in 1998, let alone the fact of missing millions among the female half of the population between each census.

The present study reviews the development of education of girls and women in India since 1947 with reference to the policy initiatives and planning and management strategies adopted to remove their educational and social backwardness of ages. The Constitution of India provides equality as a fundamental right to all citizens, prohibiting discrimination on grounds of religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth and also authorizing the State to make any special provision for women and children and the socially and educationally backward classes or citizens or for the Scheduled Castes and the Scheduled Tribes. Planned socio economic development has been used as an instrument for removal of steep inequalities and disparities and for creating conditions for a reasonable quality of life through the provision of education, health and employment opportunities and allied services based on the twin planks of growth and equity. Further we are committed to major international conventions on the rights of all humans, men-women and children in all corners and nooks of the globe.

I am happy to present the study on *Education of Girls in India: Progress and Prospects* carried out by the Department of Women's Studies, NCERT. The document is well researched and carries up to date information and analysis on education of girls in India. I would like to congratulate Professor Usha Nayar for preparing this study with assistance from Ms. Anita Nuna.

Hope the readers will find this study of use and value.

J.S. RAJPUT  
Director

National Council of Educational  
Research and Training

New Delhi



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## SECTION ONE

# The Policy Framework

EDUCATION of girls has been high on national agenda since independence. Special commissions and committees were set up from time to time to assess the progress of girls' education and to propose suitable interventions to promote their educational participation. Several strategies were adopted to promote education of girls as an integral part of the planned socio economic development of the country. Theoretically, all formal and non-formal education and training programmes are open to women. In addition provision exists for opening of separate institutions or separate wings for women/girls exclusively. Education is free for girls up to the higher secondary stage and several states have made education free for girls right up to the university level. Besides free education for all children up to the age of fourteen, there are incentive schemes like free noon meals, free books, free uniforms and attendance scholarships for girls and children from disadvantaged groups. The national policies are designed to reach out to girls and disadvantaged groups.

It may be pertinent to remind ourselves that the pro-girl child policies and action that have accelerated the educational participation of girls during the 1990s owe it to the steady work of the earlier decades, the springboard action of the National Policy on Education, 1986 and its Programme of Action revised in 1992 coterminous with the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child (1991-2000), not forgetting the impact of the Total Literacy Campaigns and ECCE on demand generation, and least of all, the contribution of women's movement and women's studies.

There are two clear axes of promotion of girls education viz., expansion of educational facilities and implementing the accepted policy of undifferentiated curricula and reorienting the content and process of education to make it gender sensitive and a vehicle of

women's equality and empowerment. The post NPE/Jomtien efforts in the area of girls' education appear to be giving positive results, a major yardstick being sharp increase in literacy levels and greater retention and transition of girls to successive higher levels of educational and more importantly the redesigning of the content and the process of education for promoting gender equality and for creating a girl friendly educational and social environment

### **Conceptual Shift**

A major conceptual shift is noticed in the last decade in the approach to the education of girls and women. Education of girls is increasingly being seen as a basic human right and a crucial input into national development. Investment in female education is now considered a development imperative rather than a plain moral commitment, thus, lifting it from the plane of pure ethics to that of sound economics. The problem of girls' education, however, does not stand alone but is inextricably linked with the status of women and the underdevelopment of rural areas. The National policies are designed to reach out to girls and other disadvantaged groups in rural remote areas. The National Policy on Education (NPE) 1986 and its Programme of Action (revised in 1992) which is the most revolutionary statement of its times and gives education a mandate to work for women's equality and empowerment. There is effort now not only to provide equality of educational opportunity but also to transform the entire content and process of education for achieving gender equality and a realignment of gender roles to make them more equitable and harmonious. (See Para 4.2 and 4.3 of the NPE )

### ***Education for Women's Equality***

*4.2 Education will be used as an agent of basic change in the status of women. In order to neutralise the accumulated distortions of the past, there will be a well-conceived edge in favour of women. The National Education System will play a positive, interventionist role in the empowerment of women. It will foster the development of new values through redesigned curricula, textbooks, the training and orientation of teachers, decision makers and administrators, and the active involvement of educational institutions. This will be an act of faith and social engineering. Women's studies will be promoted as a part of*

*various courses and educational institutions encouraged to take up active programmes to further women's development.*

*4.3 The removal of women's illiteracy and obstacles inhibiting their access to, and retention in elementary education will receive overriding priority, through provision of special support services, setting of time targets, and effective monitoring. Major emphasis will be laid on women's participation in vocational technical and professional education at different levels. The policy of non-discrimination will be pursued vigorously to eliminate sex stereotyping in vocational and professional courses and promote women's participation in non-traditional occupations, as well as in existing and emerging technologies.*

Excerpts NPE, 1986

The National Policy on Education came soon after the UN Development Decade for Women (1985-95) and reflected adequately the national aspirations for removal of all disparities, of caste, of sex, of region, and to carry basic education to all sections of society living in every nook and corner of the country. This was then the commitment that India carried to the World Conference for All at Jomtien in 1990 and has since then reaffirmed its commitment to attaining the goal of Education for All. This was also a period when experience showed that for raising the status of women, the interventions have to be made very early and the entire South Asian Region committed itself to working for the survival, protection and development of the girl child. As part of the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child, all national governments including India prepared a Plan of Action to operationalize various aspects of the development of the girl child to include health and education.

### **Major Policy Shifts**

- from macro, aggregative, centralized planning to disaggregative, decentralized micro planning with people's participation.
- from "welfare" to development and finally empowerment of women.

- from treating child as a gender neutral category ( see National Policy on Child 1974) to gender- inclusive, gender-just approaches seeing children as male and female
- from women's concerns to issues of the girl child, from SAARC year of the Girl Child to SAARC Decade of the Girl Child 1991-2000.
- from seeing girls education only as a moral commitment to viewing it as a sound investment
- from manpower/human capital to human resource development, to human development and human rights

### **From Human Capital to Human Rights**

There are several marked changes in the overall development perspectives and in the approach to women and development. Development planning earlier reflected the biases of western educated middle class males who saw women as consumers only and not as producers, as beneficiaries of development and not as active agent of development. The movement has been from the limited manpower "approach" (with excessive concern for higher order skills) to relatively broader "human capital" formation and more recently to the more comprehensive human resource development (HRD). The HRD approach wishes to develop self reliance among individuals and believes that enhanced quality of life would generate sustained increase in productivity. This approach visualizes release of human productive capacities via programmes in education, health, nutrition and family planning. The ideas of equity and social justice advocate special reference to HRD for disadvantaged groups. The approach also espouses decentralization of power and resources, setting up locally responsible and accountable institutions, development of capabilities and commitment among local personnel and community level programming, and among all these the important role of the NGOs. Women are increasingly seen as a valuable human resource. The "welfare" approach to women's education and training and that too within the traditional mother/housewife role has expanded to include their hitherto ignored roles as producers, as farmers, as unpaid family workers. Increasingly, it is felt that humans are not only a resource for a society but have an inalienable right to receive basic education and all else commensurate with the dignity of an individual, without any bias of sex, caste, creed or national origin.

Education is a basic human need and a basic human right and women's education needs to be seen not only as development imperative only but as an end in itself as their human right

### **EFA Initiatives**

Accessing quality education to all regardless of caste, creed, sex or rural-urban residence and making women's equality and empowerment the central organising principle of all educational endeavour, are the twin goals of the recent EFA initiatives of India. The strong girl child focus of the national policies and programmes of education and health in the 1990s more particularly, is reflected in the major primary education initiatives in the framework of Education For All. Substantial inputs have gone into primary education claiming half the financial outlays and also external funding, adult literacy and women's development and empowerment during the post NPE period. Women's empowerment is increasingly seen as the drive arm for attaining the goals of Education For All and Health for All by the year 2000. It is anticipated that substantive gains in education of girls and women's empowerment would accrue.

It can be said that access to the primary level education has considerably improved. Each village and even small habitations are now served with primary school or a junior primary school/part school or a non formal centre / alternative schools and even *Shishu Kendras* (pre school centres). Much has been achieved during the last six or seven years as is evident from the progress of EFA projects like Lok Jumbish, Bihar Education Project, Uttar Pradesh Basic Education Project and the District Primary Education Programme Phase I and Phase II. There are a large number of micro projects run by the NGOs with national and international funding which have success to their credit in promoting primary education of girls and education of out of school girls. Yet, much remains to be done.

### **The Constitutional Guarantees**

The Constitution of India not only grants equality to women and forbids any discrimination based on religion, race, caste, sex or place of birth but also empowers the state to practise protective discrimination in favour of women, children and any socially and educationally backward classes or for the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. The state guarantees equal opportunities to women and forbids discrimination in all matters relating to employment.

and appointment to any public office. Under the protective discrimination clause, the state has passed several social and labour legislations and drawn up special programmes and schemes for the protection, welfare and development of women and children. There are laws to protect women and children from hazardous work, laws providing maternity benefits and child care services, and equal wages for work. Additionally, women have reserved quotas and seats in many educational and training institutions, development schemes, local bodies and in government jobs. In post independence India, a large number of constitutional and legislative measures and many forward looking policies and programmes have been directed at integrating women in the mainstream of national development. Theoretically, women have gained equality. India has one of the most impressive set of laws for women and children/girls and yet little is known about them either by women themselves or by men.

### **Women and Development**

The Indian standpoint did show a distinct shift after the shocking revelations of the 1971 Census and the Report of the Committee on Status of Women (1974) showing declining sex ratio, declining work participation rates and displacement of women from land and work on account of introduction of new technologies, poor health and low educational and nutritional status especially among women belonging to rural areas and urban slums. The period corresponding to the UN Development Decade (1975-85) saw intense activity in India as elsewhere. There was better and more information generated on women by researchers and policies were revamped and many laws were passed to improve the status of women. New institutional structures were set up.

In the Sixth Five Year Development Plan (1980-85), women in development (WID) ideology was accepted for the first time and a large number of educational, training, poverty removal and employment programmes were directed at women. In the Seventh Five Year Plan (1985-90), there were added measures to improve employment chances, production skills and a culture of self reliance among women through availability of credit and skill training, etc. In the Eighth Five Year Plan, the emphasis on women's economic and political empowerment emerged very strongly, as also the focus on rural women. This also marked the beginning of the SAARC



Decade of the Girl Child and many beginnings of action for survival, protection and development of girls. The Ninth Plan is a proverbial last leap into the new millennium and continues this emphasis and sees education of girls as a non negotiable area.

The socio-economic development planning has attempted to create infrastructure and deliver basic services to the population with the goal of raising the quality of life. A large number of schemes and programmes have been initiated for women's development. Several high powered commissions and committees have been set up by the government from time to time to look into the specific interests of women and policy changes proposed. Further, India is a signatory to all major international covenants and conventions on the rights of women and children in particular, and, those referring to all humans.

It is important to note that the Constitution is only fifty years old and is superimposed on a fabric highly stratified, iniquitous, a society of great antiquity, where the regulatory forces had rested with religion and the State. The Indian socio legal framework has therefore to contend with deeply entrenched customs and traditions, beliefs and practices of a largely patriarchal and feudal past and present that contributes to the continued subordination of women. We are not to forget that the bulk of the civil and criminal laws are a century old, may be well intended !

### **The Touchstones of Equality**

The Constitution of India was adopted on 26 January 1950, two and a half year after independence. There were fourteen women members in the Constituent Assembly. The Constitution provides the normative framework and new organizing principles to lead a highly stratified society from deep seated socio-economic inequalities to one of democratic social order based on economic, technological growth and social justice. Every effort is made to translate the constitutional provisions into policies, programmes, new laws and amendment of earlier laws and through the five year development plans.

The Constitution not only provides equality to women but also empowers the State to take any special measures to neutralize the cumulative social, economic, educational and political disadvantage of centuries ( protective discrimination). The Fundamental Rights and the Directive Principles of State Policy specifically addressing women are given below,

**Fundamental Rights**

- Article 14      Confers on men and women equal rights and opportunities in the political, economic and social spheres.
- Article 15      Prohibits discrimination against any citizen on the grounds of religion, race, caste and sex
- Article 15 (3)   Makes a special provision enabling the State to make affirmative discrimination in favour of women
- Article 16      Provides for equality of opportunities in matters of public appointment for all.
- Article 21      Protection of life and personal liberty
- Article 23      Prohibition of traffic in human beings and forced labour
- Article 24      Prohibition of employment of children in factories, etc.
- Article 29      Protection of interests of minorities
- Article 30      Right of minorities to establish and administer educational institutions

**Directive Principles of State Policy**

- Article 39 (a)   The State shall direct its policy towards securing all citizens, men and women equally, have the right to an adequate means of livelihood.
- Article 39 (d)   Directs the State to ensure equal pay for equal work for men and women.
- Article 39 (e)   That the health and strength of workers, men and women, and the tender age of children are not abused .
- Article 39 (f)   That children are given opportunities and facilities to develop in a healthy manner and in conditions of freedom and dignity and that childhood and youth are protected against exploitation and against moral and material abandonment.
- Article 41      Right to work, to education and to public assistance in certain cases

- Article 42      Enjoins the State to ensure just and humane conditions of work and maternity relief
- Article 44      A uniform civil code for the citizen
- Article 45      Free and compulsory education to all children up to the age of fourteen within ten years of the coming into force of the Constitution.
- Article 47      The State is further committed to raising the nutritional levels, health and living standard of the people

### **Fundamental Duties (Part IV A)**

**Article 51 A Fundamental Duties:** It shall be the duty of every citizen of India

- (a) to abide by the Constitution and respect its ideals and institutions, the National Flag and the National Anthem;
- (b) to cherish and follow the noble ideals which inspired our national struggle for freedom,
- (c) to uphold and protect the sovereignty, unity and integrity of India,
- (d) to defend the country and render national service when called upon to do so;
- (e) to promote harmony and the spirit of common brotherhood amongst all the people of India transcending religious, linguistic and regional and sectional diversities, to renounce practices derogatory to the dignity of women;
- (f) to value and preserve the rich heritage of our composite culture;
- (g) to protect and improve the natural environment including forests, lakes, rivers, wild life and to have compassion for living creatures;
- (h) to develop scientific temper, humanism and the spirit of inquiry and reform,
- (i) to safeguard public property and to abjure violence,
- (j) to strive towards excellence in all spheres of individual and collective activity so that the nation constantly rises to higher level of endeavour and achievement.

**Some Important Laws in India Affecting Women in Particular**

- *The Equal Remuneration Act* of 1976 provides for equal pay to men and women for equal work
- *The Hindu Marriage Act* of 1955 amended in 1976 provides the right for a girl to repudiate a child marriage before attaining maturity whether the marriage has been consummated or not; and the right to property and absolute ownership over her property entitling her to make a "will" leaving her share of property to her heirs.
- *The Immoral Traffic (Prevention) Act* of 1956 as amended and renamed in 1986 makes the sexual exploitation of male or female a cognizable offence
- An amendment brought in 1984 to *The Dowry Prohibition Act* of 1961 made women's subjection to cruelty a cognizable offence. The second amendment brought in 1986 makes the husband or in-laws punishable, if a woman commits suicide within seven years of her marriage and it has been proved that she has been subjected to cruelty. Also, a new criminal offence of "Dowry Death" has been incorporated in the Indian Penal Code
- *The Factories Act* of 1948 (amended upto 1976) provides for establishment of a creche where 30 women are employed (including casual and contract labourers).
- *The Medical Termination of Pregnancy Act* of 1971 legalises abortion by qualified professional on humanitarian or medical grounds.
- Amendments to *Criminal Law* 1883 provide for a punishment of seven years in ordinary cases of rape and 10 years for custodial rape cases. The maximum punishment may go upto life imprisonment.
- A new enactment of *Indecent Representation of Women (Prohibition) Act* of 1986 and the *Commission of Sati (Prevention) Act*, 1987 have also been passed to protect the dignity of women and prevent violence against them as well as their exploitation
- *The Pre-natal Diagnostic Techniques (Regulation and Prevention of Misuse) 1994.*

- *The 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments* (1992) give 33% representation to women in Panchayats and Nagar Palikas and 30% headships to women in these bodies at the village, block and district levels in rural areas and in towns and cities

### **Some Significant Laws for Children in India**

- Children below the age of fourteen cannot be employed in hazardous work *The Employment of Children Act, 1938, The Factories Act, 1948* amendment in 1949, 1950, 1954; *The Beedi and Cigar Workers Act, 1966 The Children (Pledging of Labour) Act, 1933*, aims at eradicating the evil of pledging the labour of young children by their parents to employers in lieu of loans and advances.
- *The Child Marriage Act* of 1929 amendment in 1976 to raise the minimum age of marriage for girls from 15 to 18 years and for boys from 18 to 21 years. *Compulsory Primary Education Acts* have been passed by several states

### **Important Committees and Commissions**

- *Report of the Durgabai Deshmukh Committee on Education of Women (1959)* made comprehensive suggestions and became a policy document guiding the subsequent five year plan formulation. The need for undifferentiated curricula for both boys and girls was highlighted as also to treat education of girls as a special problem.
- Undifferentiated curricula upheld by *Hansa Mehta Committee on Differentiation of Curricula (1964); Education Commission (1964-66); National Policy of Education (1968)* and reiterated strongly in the *National Policy on Education 1986 (revised in 1992)* and its *Programme of Action*.
- *The Report of the Committee on Status of Women Towards Equality, 1974*, revealed a declining proportion of women in the population, higher female mortality, waning economic participation and poor representation of women in political processes
- *The UN Development Decade (1975-85)* saw growth of institutional mechanisms such as the Department of Women and Child Development, Women's Development Corporations, integrating women in the mainstream, Development of Women and Children

in Rural Areas (DWCRA), women as special groups for poverty removal, skill development, TRYSEM, ICDS Movement from "welfare" to "development" and finally to "empowerment" in the Eighth Plan

- *The National Perspective Plan for Women (1988-2000)* chalked out the national gender agenda till the turn of the century with a strong focus on rural and disadvantaged women
- *Shramshakti, Report of Committee on Women in Informal Sector* documents trials and travails of 94 per cent of all women workers who are employed in the informal sector
- *Ramamurthy Review Committee: Towards an Enlightened Humane Society* undercored the need for redistribution of educational opportunities in favour of girls belonging to rural and disadvantaged sections with adequate support services (water, fodder, fuel, child care) and also asked for 50% share for girls in educational resources.

A hallmark of the 1980s and 1990s is the growth of more and better information on women coming in through research-cum-activist efforts and the rise of women's studies to analyse, generate and support action.

### **International Conventions**

India is a signatory to all principal international covenants and conventions such as the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948)* and the *CEDAW (1979)*; the *UN Declaration of the Rights of the Child (1959)* and the *Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)*.

Given below are the main points of CEDAW:

*Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women* was adopted by the UN General Assembly on 18 December 1979. The spirit of the Convention reaffirms UN goals and faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women. The Convention spells out the meaning of equality and an agenda for action enjoining on the State Parties to take "all appropriate measures, including legislation to ensure the full development of women for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedom on a basis of equality with men"

Discrimination means "any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex — in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field".

### **Convention on the Rights of the Child**

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) proclaimed childhood is entitled to special care and assistance. UN Declaration of the Rights of the Child (1959) entitles every child to "affection, love and understanding, adequate nutrition and medical care, free education, free opportunity for play and recreation, a name and nationality, special care if handicapped, be among the first to obtain relief in times of disaster, learn to be a useful member of society and to develop individual abilities, be brought up in a spirit of peace and universal brotherhood, enjoy their rights regardless of race, colour, sex, national and social origin"

*The Convention on the Rights of the Child* was adopted by the UN General Assembly on 20 November 1989 and came into force after the World Summit on Children, 29-30 September 1990. Non discrimination — the key principle — a child to enjoy all rights regardless of his/her parents or legal guardians, race, colour, sex, language, religion, political opinion. The State Parties are to

- recognize that every child has the inherent right to life to ensure to the maximum extent possible the survival and development of the child (Article 6)
- provide the child the right to freedom of thought, conscience and expression, to seek and impart information of all kinds (Article 13 & 14).
- see to it that every child enjoys the highest attainable standard of health, treatment of illness and rehabilitation of health (Article 24)
- provide equal opportunity, free and compulsory primary education, different forms of general and vocational education (free in case of need), access to higher education for all on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means; make educational and vocational information available to all children and above all encourage regular attendance and reduce dropout rate.

- ensure that education is directed to the development of the child's personality, talents and mental and physical abilities to their fullest potential, developing in them respect for human rights and fundamental freedom, preparing children for responsible life in a free society in the spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance, equality between sexes (Article 29)
- recognize the right of the child to leisure, play and recreation and for participating freely in cultural life and the arts (Article 31).
- ensure that the child is protected from economic exploitation, hazardous work or interference with the child's education or anything harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development

### **The SAARC Initiative**

As a culmination of the concerted efforts during the 1980s, the year 1990 was declared as the SAARC Year of the girl child. The enthusiastic response to the issues concerning the girl child in 1990 resulted in the declaration of the 1990s as *the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child* by the Heads of Governments and States. This was a conscious attempt to maintain the tempo and drive of various activities initiated in the region during the year of the girl child. The National Plan of Action for the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child 1991-2000 A.D. has three major goals of Survival, Protection, and Development of the girl child in India while emphasising the needs of the girl children belonging to special and vulnerable groups and adolescent girls. This plan visualises the cooperation and support of both governmental and non-governmental organisations for its successful implementation and for sustaining the consciousness regarding the rights of the girl child with a view to giving her a brighter future. An urgent need is felt to reduce the existing disparities and ensuring equality for the development of the girl child/adolescent girl.

To achieve this equality we will have to ensure that .

- She has the right to survive
- She has the right to be free from poverty, hunger, ignorance and exploitation



- She has the right to equality, dignity, freedom, opportunity, care, protection and development; and finally
- She has the right to enjoy the above rights

### **National Plan of Action for SAARC Decade of the Girl Child 1991-2000 A.D.**

Rights can be declared and policies can be formulated to express our collective liberal and humanistic concern, but unless the real life of the girl child in her family and community is touched by tangible efforts and actions, nothing can be achieved. Therefore, a climate has to be created in which she can exercise her rights freely and fearlessly. One has to work for the transformation of those social and cultural values that shackle and constrict the girl child and mould her into stereotypical roles. For this, every forum and every platform should be used to create awareness and stimulate positive action. Along with this, effective implementation of the laws for protecting her and provision of opportunities for her to benefit from them have to be ensured.

As is evident, there is a clear mandate for social mobilisation to change the social and cultural practices that inhibit development of the girl child.

### **Gender and Human Development : The Unfinished Agenda**

*Human Development Index (HDI)* places India at 132 rank among 174 countries of the world with a life expectancy at birth of 62.6 years, adult literacy of 53.5 % and combined first, second and third level gross enrolment ratio of 55 with real/adjusted GDP per capita of 1670 (PPP\$) according to the Human Development Report, 1999. The HDI is based on three indicators: longevity, as measured by life expectancy at birth; educational attainment as measured by a combination of adult literacy (two thirds weight) and combined primary, secondary and tertiary enrolment ratios (one third weight) and standard of living as measured by real GDP per capita (PPP\$). (See Human Development Report 1997 for methodological details).

*The Gender-related Development Index (GDI)* rank of India is 112, an improvement over the HDI rank of 132. There has been improvement in health and education of women in India. The life expectancy at birth for women in India in 1997 was 62.9 years compared to 62.3 years for men. In high and medium human

development countries women live 5 to 7 years longer than men. Adult female literacy rate per cent in India for population aged 15 years and above was placed at 39.4 compared to 66.7 for males. The male female differentials in literacy are totally obliterated or are very narrow in high HDI countries which include developing countries like Barbados, Bahamas, Singapore, Hong Kong (now in China), Republic of Korea, Thailand and Malaysia among others and even among medium HDI countries like Sri Lanka and the Maldives. In Maldives, female literacy rate is higher than that for males. The combined first, second and third level gross enrolment ratio for girls in India during 1997 were 47.0 compared to 62.0 for boys; this ratio being 100 % for both boys and girls in Canada that remains number one in ranks on HDI, GDI and GEM. The male female gaps are small, even tilting in favour of females in several countries such as Norway, Sweden, USA, France, Finland, New Zealand, Australia, Denmark, Barbados, Bahamas, United Kingdom, and Hong Kong (China) among others. Even in Sri Lanka, a similar trend is noticed, figures being 67.0 for girls and 65.0 for boys and so for Philippines where these ratios are 85.0 for girls and 80.0 for boys. (The GDI uses the same variables as HDI. The difference is that the GDI adjusts the average achievement of each country in life expectancy, educational attainment and income in accordance with the disparity in achievement between women and men. For a detailed explanation of the GDI methodology see technical note 1 in Human Development Report 1995)

*The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM)* uses variables constructed explicitly to measure the relative empowerment of women and men in political and economic sphere of activity. This index tells us about the economic participation and contribution of women and their share in decision making. The index has a problem on two counts as regards developing countries. One, a large part of the female work is non monetised and spending time on collection of water, fodder, fuel and working on family farms and tending milch animals are considered pure labour of love, leaving little time for women for rest, personal development, care or leisure. Time use studies spell out the vital contribution of women in "use value" work as against "cash value" work done more often by men. These non monetised tasks generate energy resources for the family but costs in terms of time spent and the body calories expended by these women are rarely acknowledged and least rewarded. For want of

adequate health, nutrition, water and sanitation, and above all education and skill formation, rural female productivity is low and even negative. The second equally difficult part to the index is the absence of reliable data on female earnings as 94 out of 100 women workers are employed in the unorganised sector, equal wages are assured only in government jobs and in public undertakings in India. Women are not paid a fair wage in the unorganised or in the informal sector and the private sector is pro male unless for jobs like front office management, sales, advertisement, anything where women will lend further boost as good looking shadows to the macho male image. None the less, it is important to see how India is reflected through this index in a comparative framework.

The GEM composites female share in the national parliaments as administrators and managers, as professional and technical workers and their share of earned income. No society treats its women as complete equals. The GEM for India has a value of 0.240 and is ranked 95th among the countries for which data was available. The highest value for GEM is Norway (0.810), followed by other Nordic countries, Sweden (0.777), Denmark (0.765), Canada (0.742), Germany (0.740); Finland (0.737). Some developing countries show a marked improvement over their HDI and even GDI ranking, among them, Barbados, Thailand, Malaysia, Philippines, Sri Lanka and Maldives. India, Pakistan and Bangladesh also fare better on GDI and the GEM compared to their HDI ranking but the value of GEM is poor to say the least, and the GDI value of these countries is no consolation. (The first two variables GEM are chosen to reflect economic participation and decision making power; women's and men's percentages shares of administrative and managerial positions and their share of professional and technical jobs. Separate indices are worked out for these two occupational categories and are added together. The third variable, women's and men's share of parliamentary seats is chosen to reflect political participation and decision making level. An income variable is used to reflect power over resources. The three indices — for economic participation and decision making and power over economic resources are added together to derive the final GEM value for a country. (See Technical note 2 in Human Development Report 1997 for the method of computing these indices)

The above analysis shows that while income levels of the country determine in large parts the availability of basic services of education,

health, housing, water, sanitation, roads and electricity making for higher levels of human development as reflected by the HDI index, countries at substantially lower levels of income have high HDI ranking such as Barbados, Singapore, Hong Kong, to name some. It is heartening to note that Thailand and Malaysia are among the high HDI countries and this has happened in very recent period on account of very conscious high investments in human resource development which takes into account not only education and skill development but health, housing, water and sanitation besides other necessary infrastructure. Both Thailand and Malaysia rank fairly high on GDI and even GEM. Philippines where females outnumber males in education and professional and technical occupations has a rank of 45 on GEM although it ranks 65 on GDI, and 77 on HDI. The Indian rank and values of HDI, GDI should set us thinking. Poverty may be some reason for low HDI but low GDI and poor GEM are clearly indicative of the low status and poor position of women in a society.

### **HDI and GDI for Major States of India**

- India ranks 132 out of 174 countries for whom the Human Development Index (HDI) has been worked out by the UNDP in 1991.
- Kerala ranks first on HDI among the Indian states with HDI value of 0.603, which is comparable to that of China. The states of Uttar Pradesh (0.348) and Madhya Pradesh (0.349) are the lowest and somewhat similar to the lowest HDI countries like Nepal, Rwanda, Madagascar, Senegal for instance.
- The Gender Related Development Index (GDI) is also the highest for Kerala (0.563) and the lowest in Uttar Pradesh (0.293) which is close to Benin in Africa. Only thirteen countries in the world have GDI lower than Uttar Pradesh and Madhya Pradesh.
- Kerala ranks 8th on State Domestic Product (SDP) in India but has life expectancy at birth of 72 years and a literacy rate of 90%. The Infant Mortality Rate (IMR) of Kerala is 16 (per 1000 live births) and is comparable with the average of fourteen industrialized countries.
- In Kerala women live longer than men. The life expectation at birth is 74.7 years for females and 68.8 years for males in Kerala.

and a sex ratio ( females per 1000 males ) of 1068, a situation which is similar to the industrialized and even a large number of middle and low income countries with the exception of 21 countries in the world that have fewer than 95 females per 100 males in their populations. In low income Uttar Pradesh, literacy is at a low of 42%, 25% for females and 56% for males, female life expectancy at birth is to the order of 55.1 years and for the males in this state, it is 56.5 years. The sex ratio for U P is 917 only and the female work participation rate which is used as a proxy for female share of earnings is a low of 12.32%. Other related indicators of the status of women are also poor. For instance, the mean age at marriage for females in 1992-93 was 18.6 for Uttar Pradesh compared to 22.1 for Kerala; the Total Fertility Rate (TFR) in 1992-93 was 4.82 for U.P. compared to 2.00 for Kerala. The estimated Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR) for Kerala was 234 compared to 931 for Uttar Pradesh during 1982-86. Likewise the female mortality rate for all ages was found to be 5.2 compared to 7.5 for Kerala males in 1992; for U P, these rates were 11.9 for males and 14.0 for females.

- The highest income per capita is in the state of Punjab which ranks second on HDI and is fifth on GDI where females now live slightly longer than males, the life expectancy at birth being 67.6 years for females and 65.2 years for males. The sex ratio for Punjab is 912 (1992-93); TFR at 2.92, MMR at 369; female literacy rate of 50% (compared to 66% for males); and a work participation rate of 4.40%. Haryana with the third highest SDP per capita is fourth on HDI and tenth on GDI among the major states of India. Haryana has sex ratio of 888 (1992-93), female life expectancy of 63.7 years compared to 62.5 years for males in 1992-93 (indicating better female survival rate if allowed to be born); 18.4 years as mean age at marriage for the females, TFR of 3.99, MMR at 436 and the female work participation rate of 10.76%.
- The basic message that we get is that income or affluence is not necessarily a good predictor of how resources are distributed among different groups of population and certainly not among the two sexes. The gender bias operates and continued discrimination against females results in wider gender disparities on social indicators, a movement which is now attempting to

capture the distributive aspects of the material wealth of a nation to a great extent. The HDI and the GDI for instance give us a measure of the distribution of, health, education and the economic resources of a population. The GEM indicates to an extent reflects the economic and political empowerment of women in a comparative framework but these do not capture indicators like the sex ratio nor incidence of violence against women for which most societies will have nothing but a shameful record. The human development movement would have to broaden to include the human rights of women where it is not only living longer and becoming more literate is all that matters but where living with dignity and honour is assured, and where the right to be born, to be free to become persons in their own right is possible.

- Both indices, the GDI and the GEM however do not capture the element of lower and declining proportion of women in India and in other adverse sex ratio countries of the Asia and Pacific region. The female life expectancy has crossed that for the males in India but the adverse and ever declining sex ratio and more particularly among the 0-6 years age group does not get reflected in the above indicators. Higher female mortality does not get captured nor does the violation of their human rights and dignity gets reflected. In a world so concerned with the conservation of bio-diversity, the annihilation of the female foetus through sex selective abortions galore and sheer neglect of the health, medical care and nutrition of the girl child in early years should become a human concern or else ever declining sex ratio in the age group 0-6 years as in India could result in social aberrations and imbalances.

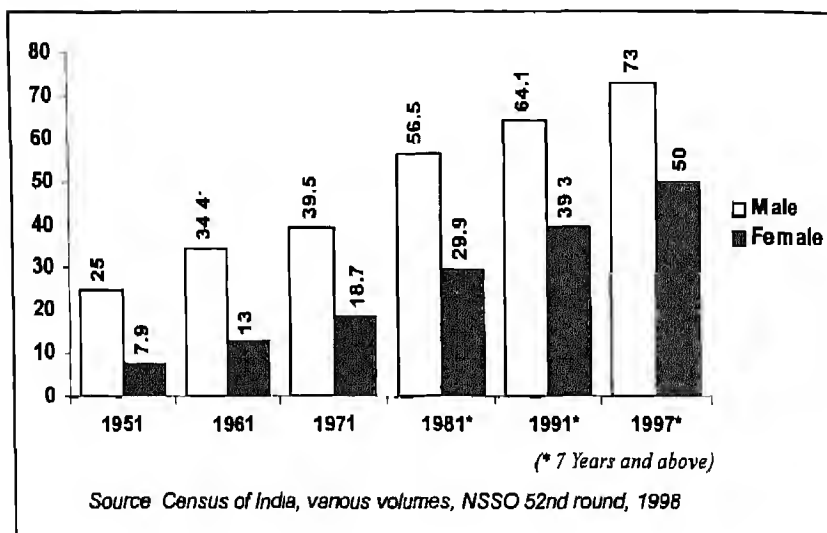
## SECTION TWO

### Progress and Shortfalls

INDIA has the second largest educational system in the world after China with 626737 primary, 190166 upper primary, 79648 high schools, 28487 higher secondary schools, 7494 colleges for general education, 540 engineering colleges, 755 medical colleges, 818 Colleges of Teacher Training, 1066 Polytechnics, TTIs 4171 and 1319 teacher training schools and 308 universities, institutions of national importance and research institutions. In addition there are 290,000 Non Formal Centres (NFE) for out of school children in the age group 6-14 years and a massive volunteer based literacy programme for adults in the age group 15-35 years. There are 111 million children enrolled in the primary grades Classes I-V; 40.4 million in Classes VI-VIII; 18.5 million in Classes IX-X, and 6.98 million in higher secondary institutions. There are more than six million students enrolled in institutions of higher learning. *Girls form 43.5% at the primary level, 40.5% at the middle stage; 37.8 % at the higher/higher secondary stage and 38.8 % in higher education (1998-99). The system, however, continues to characterize by sharp regional and gender disparities*

Universalization of Elementary Education (UEE), a Constitutional Directive remains unfulfilled. Six out of ten females above seven years of age were illiterate at the last census count. Secondary and higher education started as an urban middle class phenomenon and continues to be so even after fifty years of educational development in independent India. Rural females and urban poor form bulk of the illiterate and out of school population. The National Sample Survey, 1997, however, indicates a breakthrough in literacy with male female and rural urban gaps getting reduced.

FIG. 1  
Growth of literacy in India by sex 1951-1997

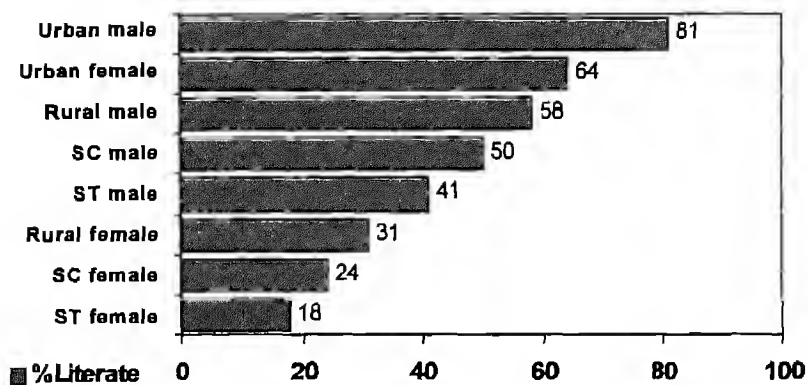


### Female Literacy

Female literacy is considered to be a more sensitive index of social development compared to overall literacy rates. Female literacy is negatively related with fertility rates, population growth rates, infant and child mortality rates, and shows a positive association with female age at marriage, life expectancy, participation in modern sectors of the economy and above all female enrolments. Female literacy rate has grown from 8% in 1951 to 39% in 1991, and the corresponding increase in male literacy during this period was from 25% to 64%. Rural urban and inter group disparities were sharp. The urban divide was the sharpest amongst female themselves. Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe female literacy rates were twice as well off in literacy compared to their counterparts. Scheduled Caste and Scheduled Tribe female literacy rates were at the bottom of the heap.



FIG 2  
Literacy disparities in 1991



Source Census of India, 1991

Urban male- 81%  
Urban female- 64%  
Rural male- 58%  
Rural female- 31%

SC male- 50%  
SC female- 24%  
ST male- 41%  
ST female- 18%

### Literacy Gains during 1991-97

The impact of the renewed efforts and heavy resource inputs in the area of primary education and the voluntary based Total Literacy Campaigns of the National Literacy Mission (set up in 1988) appears to have given dividends. The 53rd round of the National Sample Survey 1997 indicates that India has achieved a breakthrough in literacy in the 1990s.

- The overall literacy rate has gone up from 52 per cent in 1991 to 62 per cent in 1997.
- The pace has accelerated in that the increase in literacy rate was 8.7 percentage points during 1981-91, i.e., from 43.5% to 52.2% and there is already a ten percentage point increase between 1991 and 1997.

- Male female gap has narrowed. Female literacy has improved by 11 percentage points compared to 9 percentage points increase in the case of male during 1991-97. Female literacy stands at 50% though is still much lower than the male literacy rate of 73%
- Rural literacy has progressed faster. The gap between rural and urban literacy levels have narrowed. The rural urban gap was 28.4 percentage points in 1991, the rural literacy rate being 44.7 and urban literacy rate at 73.1. The rural literacy rate in 1997 has reached 56 per cent mark and only 14 percentage points lower than the urban literacy rate of 80. During these six years between 1991 and 1997, the improvement in rural literacy is to the tune of 11.3 percentage points which is twice as much as the growth of 6.9 percentage points for urban population
- The north eastern states have registered the biggest improvement and now Mizoram (95%) has overtaken Kerala (93%) to the top of the literacy chart and Assam has shown a remarkable increase from 53 % in 1991 to 75% in 1997, a 22 percentage points jump.
- What is heartening is that the proverbial BIMARU states are not lagging in effort. Bihar showed an improvement of 10.5 percentage points, Madhya Pradesh of 11.8; Uttar Pradesh of 14.4 and Rajasthan of 16.5 percentage points during 1991-97. (See Appendix Table 1)

### **Special Schemes and Programmes for Promoting Education of Girls**

Several strategies were adopted to promote education of girls in independent India. Theoretically, all formal and non-formal education and training programmes are open to women. In addition provision exists for opening of separate institutions or separate wings for women/girls exclusively. Education is free for girls up to the higher secondary stage and several states have made education free for girls right up to the university level. Besides free education for all children up to the age of fourteen, there are incentive schemes like free noon meals, free books, free uniforms and attendance scholarships for girls and children from disadvantaged groups. In the first three Five Year Plans, girls' education was given special component with earmarked allocations. This was discontinued later. In the Eighth Five Year Plan, a central scheme provided funds to the states to hire a woman teacher for all single teacher primary schools and also funds for cash awards and prizes for villages, blocks and districts doing well in female education/literacy. Girls belonging to scheduled castes and scheduled

tribes receive additional benefits like free uniforms, free textbooks. Special stipends are awarded to these children as day scholars and for board and lodging from primary education upwards in several states. In Madhya Pradesh for instance, the tribal girl passing Class V is provided a bicycle for commuting to school if she joins Class six. She is allowed to retain the cycle if she clears Class VIII. Ashram Shalas (residential schools) and Kanya Parisars (girls education complex) were seen doing very well in the tribal belt of Madhya Pradesh, for instance. Likewise, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh have a large number of schemes to promote universal elementary education among girls, especially those belonging to disadvantaged groups. Post matric scholarships are given to all SC and ST students for general and technical higher education and they also enjoy reservations in all higher education institutions/courses and job reservations and reservations in legislatures. As a result of the protective discrimination policies under constitutional provisions, the enrolment of the SC and ST children has considerably improved but their drop out rates are still considerably higher than those for the non - scheduled groups in elementary education both at the primary and the middle stages, i.e., Classes I-VIII.

A Central scheme of non formal education for out of school children in the age group 6-14 years was launched. Under this scheme States and UTs get 60% support for coeducational centres, 90% for all girls' centres. Voluntary agencies get 100% support for organising these NFE centre. In 1996-97, of the 2.41 lakh NFE centres, 1.18 lakh are exclusively for girls, which account for 29.50 lakh out of the total 70 lakh children.

### **Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE)**

Early childhood care and education (ECCE) acquires critical importance as a major compensatory programme in India where more than half the children are born and live in dire poverty. The very concept of ECCE connotes early intervention in the "care" and "education" of the child for a holistic development. Health, nutrition, physical, mental, social and emotional needs of a child are to be consciously catered for. Presently there are several programmes of ECCE (mainly state supported) to include ICDS, creches, balwadis, ECE centres, pre-primary schools in state and private sector, and many experimental and innovative projects like child to child programme, child media laboratory, mobile creches and vikaswadis.

Although the Indian constitution does not specifically mention pre-school education, Article 45 directs the state to provide free and compulsory education to all children upto the age of fourteen. By implication provision of formal schooling to 6-14 years age group through the programme of UEE, has been a major goal we have chased since 1950. The importance of pre school education and early childhood stimulation has been felt for a long time but has acquired a critical dimension as a necessary pre condition for improving children's school performance and progress by NPE. Starting with 33 experimental projects, ICDS has expanded to cover all community development blocks currently, covering over 14 million children in the age group 0-6 years in 1996-97. During 1997-98 17% of children in the age group 3-6 years were receiving pre school education, 16.4% girls and 17.3 % boys.

The National Policy on Education 1986 places high priority on ECCE and recognising the holistic nature of child development — health, nutrition, mental, physical, social, moral and emotional suggests its integration into ICDS programme. ECCE is to lay special emphasis on children belonging to underprivileged groups and first generation learners. In addition, it is seen as serving a school readiness programme and as a support service for girls in UEE as also for working women in low income groups. ICDS is a support programme to relieve girls from the care of their siblings, thereby improving their retention in schools. Despite some drawbacks in the programme, studies have shown that children who have been in ICDS centres stay for longer time in schools. ICDS suffers from lack of community support and participation. In some cases and in certain areas, teachers were not even aware of the existing ICDS centres. It is felt that for increasing the girls' participation in ICDS, strengthening of ICDS centres is important. Three prominent correctives are needed from the point of view of equality between sexes in the ICDS are:

- (i) Gender disaggregated data for all centres for planning suitable interventions
- (ii) Gender sensitisation of all ICDS functionaries especially, the anganwadi workers.
- (iii) Locating Anganwadis near the primary school and extended hours as day care centres to enable girls to continue schooling

### **Universalisation of Elementary Education**

Article 45 of the Directive Principle of the State Policy enjoins on the State to endeavour to provide free and compulsory education to all

children up to the age of 14 years within a period of 10 years from the commencement of the Constitution. This Constitutional Directive was interpreted by the planners as five years of primary and three years of upper primary education for children in the age group 6-14 years as a programme of Universal Elementary Education. The commitment to UEE has been reiterated in each of the eight five year plans and is listed as a top priority in the draft approach paper to the Ninth Five Year Plan. The Education Commission (1964-66), the National Policy of Education 1968, the National Policy on the Child 1974, Report of the Committee on the Status of Women 1974, the National Policy on Education 1986, its revised POA 1992 and the National Perspective Plan on Women 1988-2000, have all emphasised the need to implement the programme of UEE at the earliest.

There have been a number of educational initiatives from the central and state governments and from NGOs to achieve UEE. Some of those initiatives are Bihar Education Project (BEP), Lok Jumbish in Rajasthan, School Teaching Programmes started by Eklavya in Madhya Pradesh, PROPE - action based project for rural communities in Maharashtra, UP Basic Education Project, Girl Child Education Project (USAID), NGO Forum for Street and Working Children started in Delhi, UPE in Orissa, PIED for disabled children in eight states, Andhra Pradesh Primary Education Project (APPEP) and District Primary Education Programme (DPEP). DPEP is the recent initiative of MHRD, Government of India in which district level, decentralised micro planning, participatory, people oriented approach have been the major objectives. Primary education has been reinstated, starting with 57% share of plan allocations for education in the First Five Plan, its share went down to 29% in the seventh plan and is now receiving about half of the plan budget.

Considerable progress has been made in terms of provision of facilities and enrolment of children in the relevant age group. However, the goal of UEE continues to elude us. This is largely on account of the inability of the system to enroll and retain girls and children from the disadvantaged groups.

### **Improved Access**

On account of intense efforts, India has achieved near universal access to primary schooling through formal and non formal/alternative schooling facilities. However, middle school facilities continue to be very limited especially in rural areas. During 1950-51 and 1998-99.

- The number of primary schools have gone up from 209671 to 626737.
- The number of middle schools have increased from 13596 to 190166
- The number of high/higher secondary schools have gone up from 7416 to 112438.

TABLE 1  
Growth of educational institutions at the school stage  
in India 1950-51 and 1998-99

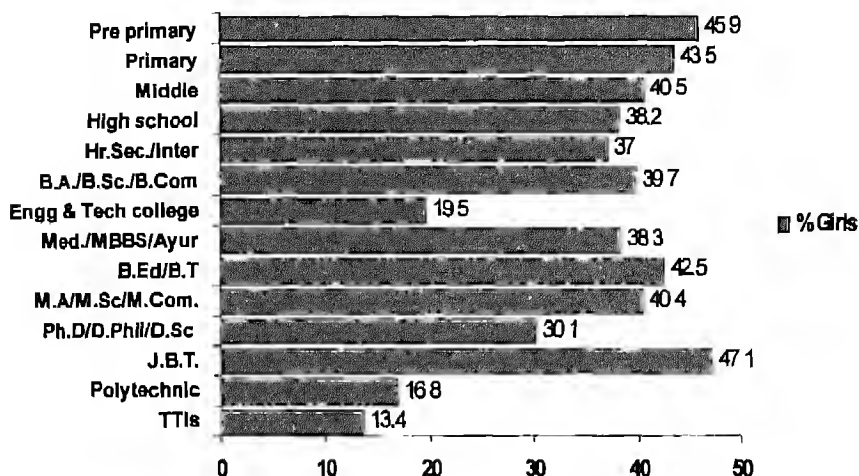
Year I	Primary 2	Middle 3	High/Hr Sec. 4
1950-51	209671	13596	7416
1960-61	330399	49663	17329
1970-71	408378	90621	37051
1980-81	494503	118555	51573
1990-91	560935	151456	79796
1998-99	626737	190166	112438

Source Department of Education, MHRD, Annual Report 1999-2000 and Selected Educational Statistics, various volumes

TABLE 2  
Percentage girls to total enrolment at various levels of education  
1998-99

	Total	Girls	%Girls to total
	2981770	1368114	45.9
	110985877	48275818	43.5
	40353358	16345026	40.5
	18451855	7054191	38.2
	9315594	3447696	37.0
	5968268	2370907	39.7
	312741	61048	19.5
	143404	54918	38.3
	114199	48554	42.5
M A/M Sc /M.Com	516010	208660	40.4
Ph.D/D.Phil /D Sc.	45820	13771	30.1
J B T	128735	60594	47.1
Polytechnic	357174	60104	16.8
TT Is	440843	59043	13.4

FIG 3  
Percentage girls to total enrolment at various levels of education  
1998-99



### Enrolment at the Elementary Stage

A fairly strong gender focus has resulted in greater participation of girls in elementary schooling but the male female gap in enrolment ratios and share of girls in total enrolments is below par for the country as a whole and is very marked at the Middle Stage. Intra female disparities as between rural urban areas and among general populations, Scheduled Castes (SC), Scheduled Tribes (ST), Other Backward Castes (OBC), and some Minorities are sharp

### Faster Growth of Girl's Educational Participation

Due to persistent efforts, the enrolments of girls at the elementary stage have grown steadily over the last five decades.

- The number of girls at the primary stage has gone up from 5.38 million in 1950-51 to 48.3 million in 1998-99.
- The number of girls at the middle stage has increased from 0.53 million in 1950-51 to 16.3 million in 1998-99.

TABLE 3  
Enrolment at the elementary stage by sex (1950-51 to 1998-99)

Year	Primary Stage (Classes I- V)		
	Boys	Girls	Total
1	2	3	4
1950-51	13769855	5384602	19154457
1960-61	23592727	11401102	34993829
	(71.34)	(111.74)	(82.69)
1970-71	35739221	21306220	57045441
	(51.48)	(86.88)	(63.02)
1980-81	45286131	28488056	73774187
	(26.71)	(33.71)	(29.33)
1990-91	56954944	40420356	96375300
	(25.77)	(41.89)	(30.64)
1998-99	62710059	48275818	110985877
	(10.10)	(19.43)	(15.16)
Year	Middle Stage (Classes VI- VII)		
	Boys	Girls	Total
1950-51	2585741	534217	3119958
1960-61	5074345	1630465	6704810
	(96.24)	(205.21)	(114.90)
1970-71	9425697	3889473	13315170
	(85.75)	(138.55)	(98.59)
1980-81	139363965	6790399	20724361
	(47.83)	(74.58)	(55.64)
1990-91	21487106	12538881	34025987
	(54.21)	(84.66)	(64.18)
1998-99	24008332	16345026	40353358
	(11.73)	(30.35)	(18.60)

Source : Department of Education, MHRD, GOI.

Note : Figures in parenthesis indicate percentage increase of education among children

- In absolute terms enrolment of girls during this period at the primary level has increased by 7.8 million compared to boys whose numbers have increased by 5.7 millions; the increase for girls is 3.8 million compared to 2.5 million for boys at the upper primary stage during 1990-91 and 1998-99
- In fact, the growth rates for girls have always been higher than for boys for both starting from a much lower base but also on account of sustained state effort to promote education of girls as an important part of planned development.



- It may be noted that even during the period 1990-91 to 1998-99, the growth rate for girls at the primary stage (Classes I-V) is twice as high as that for boys and more than double at the middle stage (VI-VIII). In absolute terms, enrolment of girls during this period at the primary level has increased by over seven millions compared to boys whose numbers have increased by four millions. At the middle stage, the increase in the number of girls during this period is to the tune of 3.3 million compared to 2.2 million for boys (See Table 3)

### Percentage Share of Girls to Total

The percentage of girls to the total has shown a steady increase since independence at all levels of education. During 1950-51 and 1998-99, the percentage share of girls among the children enrolled at the primary stage went up from 28% to 44% and from 16% to 41% at the middle stage; from 13.3% to 37.8% at the Secondary/ Higher Secondary level and from 10% to 38.8% in higher education (See Table 4)

FIG.4  
Percentage of girls in school enrolment at the elementary stage  
(1950-51 to 1998-99)

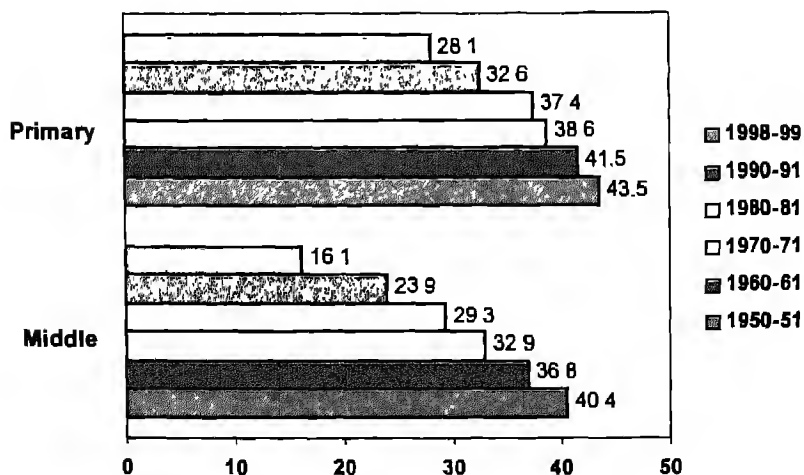
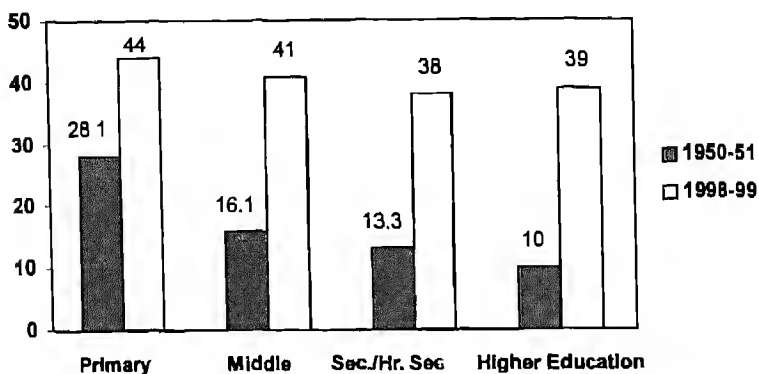


FIG 5  
Percentage of girls in school enrolment at the elementary stage  
(1950-51 to 1998-99)



Source: Selected Educational Statistics, MHRD, 2000

TABLE 4  
Percentage of girls in school enrolment at the elementary stage  
(1950-51 to 1998-99)

Year	Primary stage (Classes I-V)	Middle stage (Classes VI-VIII)	High/Hr.Sec (Classes IX-XII)	Higher Education
1	2	3	4	5
1950-51	28.1	16.1	13.3	10.0
1960-61	32.6	23.9	20.5	20.4
1970-71	37.4	29.3	25.0	20.0
1980-81	38.6	32.9	29.6	26.7
1990-91	41.5	36.7	32.9	32.3
1998-99	43.5	40.5	37.8	38.8

Source: Selected Educational Statistics, 2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

### Percentage Share of SC/ST Children

It is evident from the data below that the percentage share of SC, ST girls to the total SC, ST children is not very remarkably different

from the overall percentage share of girls in general population at the primary stage. At the middle stage SC, ST girls are way behind. It is perhaps pertinent to state that the percentage share of SC, ST children to the total is similar to the ratio proportion of these groups in the total population at the primary stage but the situation is not satisfactory for both ST boys and girls at the middle stage. The SC and ST population constituted 16.33% and 8.01% respectively at 1991 census.

TABLE 5

Percentage girls in total enrolment by groups at the elementary stage in 1998-99 by caste/tribe

Category 1	Primary Stage (Classes I — V) 2	Middle Stage (Classes VI-VIII) 3
All Communities	43.5	40.5
SC	43.0	38.9
ST	42.9	37.9

Source: Annual Report 1999-2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

TABLE 6

Percentage share of SC/ST children in total enrolment at the elementary stage in 1998-99

Caste/ Tribe 1	Primary stage (Classes I-V)			Middle stage (Classes VI-VIII)		
	Boys 2	Girls 3	Total 4	Boys 5	Girls 6	Total 7
SC	17.74	17.35	17.57	15.61	14.61	15.20
ST	8.47	8.26	8.38	6.62	5.92	6.33

Source: Annual Report 1999-2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

### The Regional Variations

In 1998-99, the share of girls to total number of enrolments varied from:

- 35% in Rajasthan to 50% in Meghalaya at the primary stage,
- 27% in Rajasthan to 52% in Meghalaya at the middle stage,
- 25% in Rajasthan to 49% in Himachal Pradesh at the secondary stage;
- 18% in Bihar to 60% in Chandigarh in higher education. (See Appendix Table 2)

### The Rural Urban Divide

In 1993, according to the Sixth All India Educational Survey (NCERT), for 587247 inhabited villages there were a total of

- 511,849 primary schools
- 127,863 middle schools
- 48,262 secondary schools
- 11,642 higher secondary schools

thus, going by pure averages, left—

- 13% villages unserved by a primary school
- 78% villages without a middle school
- 92% villages without a high school and 98% villages without a higher secondary school
- There were 11642 rural higher secondary schools compared to 11,882 such schools for urban areas.

FIG 6

Access of rural girls to schooling in India in 1993

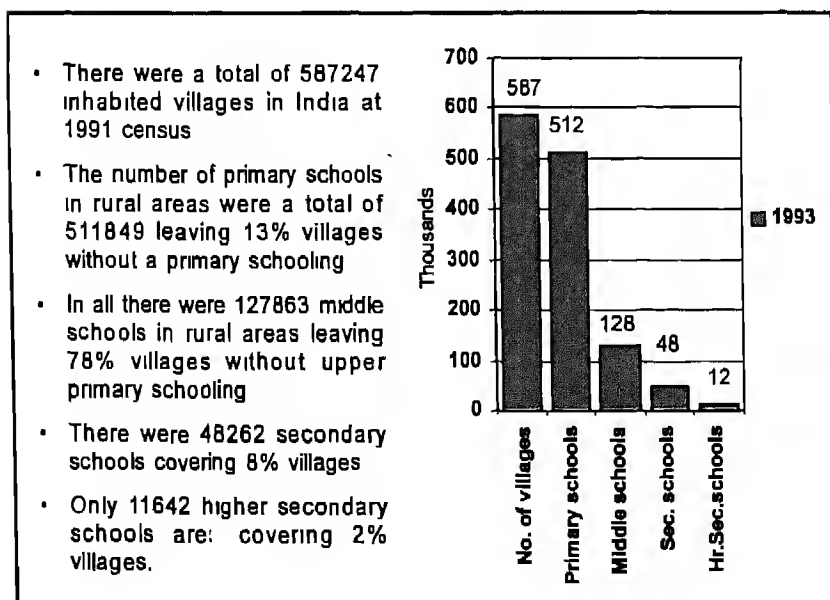
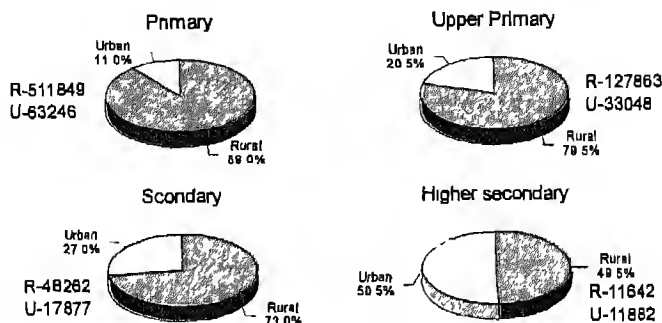


FIG. 7  
Distribution of schools by rural urban area in India in 1993



- There were only 0.72 million rural girls at the higher secondary stage compared to 1.77 million girls in urban areas.
- At the secondary level (Classes X-XII) also, the urban girls enrolled numbered 2.80 million compared to 2.71 million in rural areas.
- And, thus rural girls get eliminated from the qualifying rounds and reach as far as the village hedge.

*Girls are less mobile than the boys* on account of the parental concern for their personal safety and thus utilize educational facilities available within the revenue village or in its sub units or habitations (an average of two habitations per village). For instance, very often a revenue village is spread over several kilometers as in Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and the same situation prevails in mountainous and forest regions elsewhere which are often divided by physical and social distance, as observed, between the upper caste/class inhabitants and the scheduled castes and tribes. The well off upper caste form the core and the disadvantaged sections are at the periphery of a village, the school is often located in the core part of

the village. The SC and ST parents at times are intimidated into not sending their children to school in some parts of the northern plains. (DPEP Gender Studies, 1993-94)

*Educational lag of rural girls is linked to under development of rural areas* in terms of development infrastructure especially convenient, safe means of transport, lack of drinking water, cheap fuel, sanitation, and health and education infrastructure. The problem is acute in small sized villages and in sparsely populated remote areas. Gender and rural poverty combine adds to burden of the girl child whose direct and indirect earnings and work is needed by the families whereas little boys are let off and even are pampered and are seen as potential bread winners.

*Shortage of women teachers in rural areas* is seen as a barrier to girls' participation in education especially at the middle stage and above. The last available figures from the Sixth All India Educational Survey are not very encouraging with regard to rural areas where the demand for female teachers is the most.

### **Enrolment Ratio**

Enrolment ratios moved up constantly up to 1990-91 giving gross figures of 86 for girls and 114 for boys at the primary stage and to 47 for girls and 77 for boys at the middle stage. The enrolment ratios appear to be moving towards net figures in 1998-99; these ratios being 83 for girls and 101 for boys at the primary level and 49 for girls and 65 for boys at the upper primary stage. This is likely on account of improved enrolment at the right age and better retention. However, unless an attempt is made to collect age specific ratios separately, it would be difficult to come to any conclusion, because girls still continue to enter late and drop out earlier. The overall gender gaps persist and the situation of girls belonging to the SC and the ST in terms of gender parity needs much greater attention. It is a matter of great concern that the enrolment ratio of boys is showing a more marked downward trend since 1990-91 both at the primary and the upper primary levels. Girls show an improvement at the upper primary stage. In Union Territories of Delhi and Chandigarh, girls' enrolment ratio is better than that for boys at the upper primary level. Similar trends were noted by an earlier study for Bombay and Calcutta (Nayar, 1993).

TABLE 7  
Enrolment ratio by stages and by sex (1950-51 to 1998-99)

Year 1	Primary Stage (Classes I- V)			Upper primary (Classes VI- VII)		
	Boys 2	Girls 3	Total 4	Boys 5	Girls 6	Total 7
1950-51	60.8	24.9	42.6	20.8	4.3	12.9
1960-61	82.6	41.4	62.4	33.2	11.3	22.5
1970-71	96.5	60.5	78.6	46.3	19.4	33.4
1980-81	95.8	64.1	80.5	54.3	28.6	41.9
1990-91	113.9	85.5	100.1	76.6	47.0	62.1
1998-99	100.9	82.9	92.1	65.3	49.1	57.6

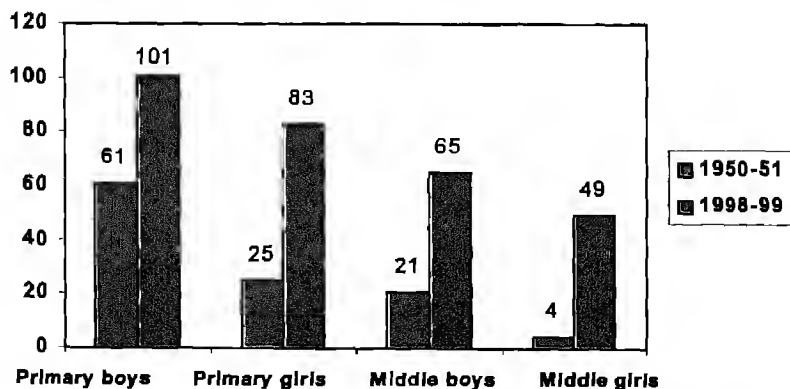
Source : Selected Educational Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, 1998-99

TABLE 8  
Enrolment ratio by stages, by sex, by caste/tribes in India (1998-99)

Groups 1	Primary Stage (Classes I-V)			Upper Primary (Classes VI-VIII)		
	Boys 2	Girls 3	Total 4	Boys 5	Girls 6	Total 7
All Groups	100.86	82.85	92.14	65.27	49.08	57.58
SC	96.55	77.95	87.57	72.12	50.96	62.09
ST	96.89	73.22	85.09	63.37	40.48	52.20

Source : Annual Report 1999-2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

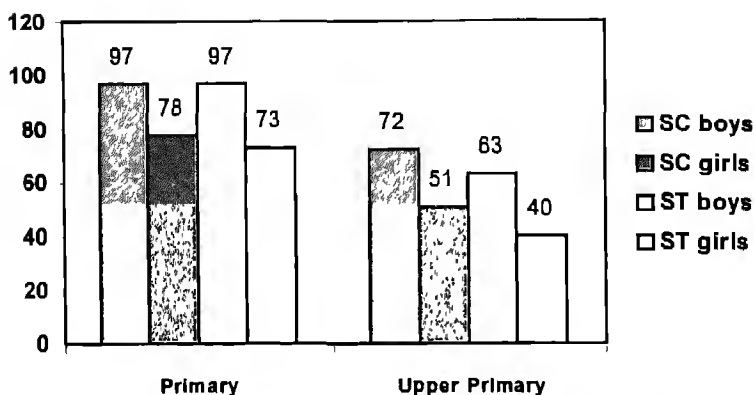
FIG. 8  
Enrolment ratio by stages and by sex (1950-51 to 1998-99)



Source : MHRD

FIG 9

Enrolment ratio by stages and by sex and by caste 1998-99



Source: *Selected Educational Statistics, Department of Education, MHRD, 2000*

TABLE 9

Regional disparities in enrolment ratio of girls at the elementary stage in India in 1998-99

**Primary — National Average 82.5%**

**States/UTs above the National Average in Descending Order**

Sikkim (130%); Mizoram (121%); Meghalaya (114%); Maharashtra (111%); Nagaland (109%); Arunachal Pradesh (108%); Tamil Nadu (107%); Daman & Diu (105%); Karnataka (104%); Gujarat (101%); Assam (100%); Dadra & Nagar Haveli (100%); Tripura (97%); Andaman and Nicobar Islands (96%); Lakshadweep (96%); Madhya Pradesh (96%); Andhra Pradesh (95%); Himachal Pradesh (88%); Kerala (87%); West Bengal (87%); Delhi (87%); Pondicherry (85%); Haryana (84%); Manipur (84%); Punjab (84%),

**Range: 84% in Haryana/Manipur/Punjab to 130% in Sikkim**

**States/UTs below the National Average in Descending Order**

Orissa (80%); Rajasthan (76%); Goa (68%); Chandigarh (68%); Jammu & Kashmir (67%); Bihar (62%); Uttar Pradesh (49%);

**Range: 49% in Uttar Pradesh to 80% in Orissa**



**Upper Primary/Middle- National Average- 48.08%****States/UTs above the National Average in Descending Order**

Andaman & Nicobar Islands (98%), Kerala (93%), Pondicherry (90%), Sikkim (87%), Delhi (85%), Maharashtra (83%), Himachal Pradesh (80%), Daman & Diu (79%), Tamil Nadu (79%); Mizoram (78%), Goa (73%), Lakshadweep (71%), Manipur (68%), Nagaland (67%), Chandigarh (66%), Punjab (65%), Meghalaya (62%); Arunachal Pradesh (65%), Haryana (61%), Karnataka (61%), Gujarat (58%), Tripura (56%), Assam (52%); Jammu & Kashmir (50%), Madhya Pradesh (48.09%),

**Range: 48 % in Tripura to 98% in Andaman and Nicobar Islands**

**States/UTs below the National Average in Descending Order**

West Bengal (44%), Dadra & Nagar Haveli (44%), Andhra Pradesh (41%); Orissa (37%); Rajasthan (34%), Uttar Pradesh (26%), Bihar (23%);

**Range: 23% in Bihar to 44% in West Bengal/Dadra & Nagar Haveli**

*Note See Appendix Table 4*

**Dropout**

There is increased enrolment and improved retention. The dropout rate for the primary classes (I-V) has gone down from 62% to 39% for boys and from 71% to 41% for girls during the period 1960-61 to 1998-99. At the middle stage the dropout rate has come down from 75% to 54% for boys and from 85% to 60% for girls during the same period. The last available figures indicate that the dropout rate for SC/ST children is substantially higher than that for general groups, the same being true for rural girls. See for instance the *Selected Educational Statistics 1998-99 (MHRD)*.

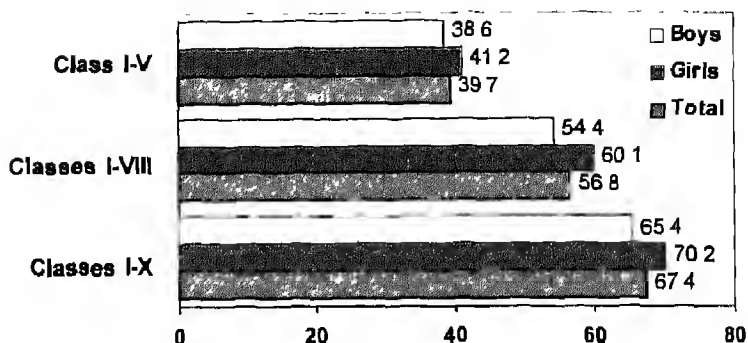
**TABLE 10**  
Dropout rate at the elementary stage in India  
(1960-61 to 1998-99)

Year	Primary (Classes I-V)			Middle (Classes I-VIII)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1960-61	61.7	70.9	64.9	75.0	85.0	78.3
1970-71	64.5	70.9	67.0	74.6	83.4	77.9
1980-81	56.2	62.5	58.7	68.0	79.4	72.7
1990-91	40.1	46.0	42.6	59.1	65.1	60.9
1998-99*	38.6	41.2	39.7	54.4	60.1	56.8

\* provisional figures

Source : *Selected Educational Statistics & Annual Report 1999-2000*, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

FIG 10  
Dropout rate at the elementary stage in India  
(1960-61 to 1998-99)



Source Annual Report, Department of Education, MHRD, 1999-2000

TABLE 11  
Regional disparities in the female dropout rate at the elementary stage  
in 1998-99

**Primary Stage (Classes I-V) - (National Average- 41.22%)**

**States/UTs above the National Average in Descending Order**

Sikkim (63%); Rajasthan (62%); Bihar (59%); Meghalaya (57%); Uttar Pradesh (56%); Tripura (54%); West Bengal (54%); Mizoram (52%); Orissa (48%); D&N Haveli (48%); Arunachal Pradesh (47%); J. & K (47%); Manipur (46%); Andhra Pradesh (45%); Assam (42%).

**Range: 42% in Assam to 63 in Sikkim**

**States/UTs below the National Average in Descending Order**

Chandigarh (-40.8%); Kerala (-5.2%); Pondicherry (-4%); Gujarat (34%); Tamil Nadu (34%); Himachal Pradesh (31%); Nagaland (30%); Karnataka (28%); Madhya Pradesh (28%); Maharashtra (25%); Punjab (21%); Haryana (16%); A&N Islands (12%); Lakshdweep (9%); Goa (9%); Delhi (5%); Daman & Diu (3.44%),

**Range: -40.8 % in Chandigarh to 3.44 Daman & Diu**

**Classes I-VIII - National Average 60 .09****States above the National Average in Descending Order**

Bihar 80%, West Bengal (78%), Meghalaya ( 78%), Andhra Pradesh (74%), Assam (72%), Orissa (72%), Tripura (71%); Rajasthan (68%), Arunachal Pradesh (66%); Mizoram (66%); Gujarat (65%); Karnataka (64%), Sikkim (63%); D&N Haveli (63%)

**Range: 63% in Sikkim /Dadar & Nagar Haveli to 80 % in Bihar**

**States below the National Average in Descending Order**

Pondicherry (-2.05%); Chandigarh (-3.3%), Kerala (-3.5), Uttar Pradesh (58%); Madhya Pradesh (57%); Manipur (47%), Jammu & Kashmir (44%), Maharashtra (44%), Haryana (39%); Nagaland (39%), Tamil Nadu (35%), Punjab (30%), Himachal Pradesh (28%), A&N Islands (28%), Lakshdweep (25%), Goa (11%), Delhi (9%); Daman & Diu (7%);

**Range. - 2.05 % in Pondicherry to 58 % in Uttar Pradesh**

*Note See Appendix Table 7 and 8*

**Internal Efficiency**

TABLE 12  
Rates of efficiency (primary stage)

	Promotion rate	Dropout rate	Years Input per Graduate
Boys	67.8	25.6	7.2
Girls	67.3	26.0	8.0
Total	67.6	25.8	7.5

*Source : Sub-Table 18 of EFA-2000 Assessment. Core EFA Indicators, Department of Education, MHRD, 1999*

As the above table shows, there is very negligible male female difference in the Promotion Rate or the Dropout Rate; only girls take on an average an year longer to complete five years of primary schooling compared to the boys.

**Girls' Enrolment, Retention and Achievement: EFA Projects**

*The DPEP:* Aggarwal (1999) notices that the participation of girls has improved considerably in the 42 Phase I DPEP districts. The share of girls enrolments has increased from 45.55 % in 1995-96 to

46.3 % in 1997-98. Index of Gender Equity is more than 95 for 21 of the 42 districts; is between 85 to 95 in another 16 districts. There were five districts of Madhya Pradesh, namely, Guna, Tikamgarh, Sidhi, Dhar and Rajgarh where additional efforts are needed to reduce the inequities between the boys and the girls. The strategy of Alternative Schooling is expected to overcome the gender related inequities even in the most educationally backward tribal dominated districts. The minimisation of gender based inequities in primary education would result in improved female literacy in the DPEP districts which were selected from among the low female literacy districts. The Project goal to reduce differences among gender and social groups to less than 5% by the end of the Project appears to be in sight. However, he warns against complacency as he feels a lot needs to be done to improve the participation and retention of girls. A variety of innovative and cost effective strategies need to be evolved to reach out to children in isolated small habitations and habitations with concentration of ST children, working children and the disabled children. Additionally, development of locally relevant curriculum and teacher training to handle first generation learners as also greater interaction between the school and the community through frequent meetings with the Village Education Committees, women's groups and other community based agencies.

Srivastava (1999) study of the internal efficiency of Primary Education in 40 districts of Phase I of the (DPEP) states that in general, the gender difference in respect of internal efficiency is small in most of the districts. In 24 districts, the coefficient of efficiency in the case of girls is not very different from that of the boys, the difference between the two being less than three points. In 14 districts where the coefficient for girls is less than that for boys, ten are in Madhya Pradesh. However, in the Districts of Raisen and Rewa, the coefficient of efficiency for girls is substantially higher than that for boys. As regards the Cohort Dropout Rate of the 40 districts studied, the dropout rate of girls exceeds that of boys in 25 districts, is almost equal to that of boys in 5 districts and less than that of boys in 10 districts. Only in 11 out of 40 districts, the dropout rate of girls is 5.0 or more percentage points.

A Mid-term Learning Assessment Survey (MAS) by the NCERT in 1997 in all 42 districts of Phase I of DPEP indicated significant improvement in language and mathematics although a great deal remains to be done. The goal of reducing differences between gender

groups to less than 55 has been realized in almost all districts across the classes in both the subjects. The results, however, are not so encouraging with regard to social groups.

*Shiksha Karmi Project* Launched in 1987 with SIDA assistance, the Shiksha Karmi Project (SKP) of Rajasthan is an innovative community based primary education experiment for remote and difficult villages with dysfunctional primary schools and endemic teacher absenteeism. The regular teachers are replaced with local teachers, the Shiksha Karmis, who are less qualified but are continually trained through pre service, in service and refresher programmes by the Shiksha Karmi Sahyogis (Field Coordinators) and Supervisors who are eternally on the move working with the Day schools and the *Prehar Pathshalas* (Evening Schools). Besides the improvement of the school environment, augmentation of the school infrastructure and increasing enrolment and retention of all children, the Shiksha Karmi sees education of girls as a serious challenge in these extremely low literacy blocks of Rajasthan. At the grassroots level, the SKP works through the Panchayat Samities, Shiksha Karmi Sahyogis, subject specialists of NGOs and the village communities. The *Prehar Pathshalas* provide condensed formal school curriculum and specially designed learning materials to educate the out of school children who are unable to attend the regular school for some reason or the other. Presently 22,359 girls (who form 71% of the learners in these centres) are benefiting from these *Prehar Pathshalas*. Many of them look overage and hence perhaps feel shy to go to the day school.

The dedication of the SKP personnel is exemplar to say the least. They wander like the proverbial minstrels spreading the light of knowledge, often staying the night in the remote villages when needed. The SKP villages have now batches of girls who have passed Class V and they and their guardians want these schools to be upgraded to middle stage. The pride of a village visited was the woman Shiksha Karmi who had upgraded her qualifications to high school in the last several years. Currently, the SKP is functional in 125 blocks spread over the 29 districts of Rajasthan, catering to the needs of 165000 children of whom majority are first generation learners.

*Lok Jumbish : Lok Jumbish* (LJ) signifies a vigorous peoples' movement and views education as an instrumentality of women's

equality. The LJ strategies that have evolved over a period consist of people's participation; decentralisation, gender equity, improvement of teacher status; quality in all programmes and activities; HRD; and inbuilt review and evaluation. Education of Girls is its load star and women's empowerment and involvement is seen both as a means to universalisation of primary education of eight years and as an end in itself. The Project really believes that women hold up half the sky. A highly decentralized block based-village centred project, women make up half of its functionaries at all levels of management. At the field level, there are two woman functionaries to one male functionary. Processes are very important in this project and the pace has to be set by the village people, by the learners, by the communities. The Lok Jumbish staff, highly professionalised move into communities, win their confidence, form them into groups for school mapping and later school building committees, women and men in equal numbers. It is hard work at times but ultimately, the schools and the schooling of their children become the concern and responsibility of the village itself, the parents, the elected members and all others. It is really an attempt to return primary education where it belongs — the people and the communities themselves. There is an attempt to make curriculum interesting, relevant and flexible, leaving a lot of room for the teachers to innovate. Besides working with the regular government schools, a major innovation of LJ is its Sahaj Shiksha (Non Formal Education Programme), in which the main takers are the girls and boys from very disadvantaged groups and remote areas. Mahila Shikshan Kendras (Women's Education Centres), Adhyapika Manch (Women Teachers' Forum), gender training of teachers and teacher educators, Balika Shivirs (Girl Child Camps), and of late life skills approach and gender sensitization of boys in similar camps are several innovations that make Lok Jumbish a veritable movement for women and the poor.

The LJ sees educational access for girls as paramount, the educational content and process as a means to enhancing the self esteem of girls and women for taking hold of their own lives and for participating in all social institutions and processes with dignity and self confidence. Samvadika (The Core Gender Group), meets regularly to understand all dimensions of gender equity and women's empowerment and for sharing field experiences and for ever working out new strategies. The Lok Jumbish is currently working in 75

blocks in 27 districts of Rajasthan. The State Government has decided to start DPEP in 19 districts. The remaining 13 districts will be exclusively covered by the Lok Jumbish.

Besides, Saraswati Yojana (SY) is operational in Rajasthan since 1994-95 in order to keep the education of the girl child focus of all educational activities. Under this scheme, local women who have passed Class VIII are given training and financial assistance to run courtyard schools in their homes. At present about 1220 SY centre are functional in which about 10,000 children are studying. This scheme is in addition to the centrally sponsored scheme of Non Formal Education.

*Bihar Education Project (BEP):* This UNICEF assisted primary education project has likewise done considerable work to promote the universalisation of primary education through the formal schools, the NFE and the very innovative Jagjagi Centres for out of school girls and educational and residential economic empowerment programmes run by the Mahila Samakhya complement of the BEP. The transformation of shy reticent tribal and folk girls into alert and confident young women complete with literacy, health and economic skills and laced with Judo and Karate training is something to be seen to be believed.

### **Total Literacy Campaigns and Girls' Education**

The National Literacy Mission (NLM) was launched as a societal and technology mission in 1988 for imparting functional literacy to 80 million illiterate adults in 15-35 age group by 1995, bulk of whom were women. The NLM adopted the Total Literacy Campaign (TLC) as a principal strategy for achieving universal literacy. The TLC is an area specific, time bound, volunteer based mass campaign, built through mass mobilization and support of the Central and State Governments, district administrations, non-governmental organizations, voluntary agencies and people from all walks of life (MHRD, 1993).

The NLM is now committed to bringing about total literacy by the year 2005. So far, 450 districts have been covered by the TLCs, 250 districts have moved into the post literacy stage and 65 have launched programmes of continuing education (MHRD, 1999). Analysis of the TLC campaigns shows that women form the bulk of the beneficiaries, the content and process of these campaigns need

to be studied thoroughly from the point of view of gender equity and awareness. The few studies in this area point out the infrastructural and the planning and management deficiencies of adult learning centres. At least one study brings out very clearly the continued presentation of women in gender stereotyped roles in the literacy materials. Their inadequacy regarding lack of information on the legal rights of women both among men and women, and a lack of gender sensitivity needs to be probed into. The materials produced by NGO, more diversified in their packaging, were found very radical in their messages and those of the government as somewhat reactionary. The content and process of the TLCs require immediate attention with a view to making them powerful agents of women's empowerment

Evaluation studies are indicating that literacy apart, the TLC is becoming a movement for social awakening and social change. Among, the takers, majority are women and they have successfully launched protest movements directed at problems like alcoholism and its allied ills of violence and abuse. These women have learnt to ask for provision of basic amenities of water, sanitation, housing and wage work. Above all these campaigns have created a definite demand for primary education especially for girls' education

Conversely, mobilisation and organisation of women at the grassroots around their immediate concerns and needs by the State and by the non official agencies and organisations, has generated a demand for functional literacy, legal awareness and above all education of their children.

### **Women Teachers**

The number of teachers at the school stage increased phenomenally During 1950-51 to 1998-99, at the primary stage their number has gone up from 538 thousand to 1.9 million, at the middle stage their number has gone up from 86 thousand to 1.3 million. As regards high/higher secondary stage their number has gone up 127 thousand to 1.8 million. Women teachers form 35% of the teachers at the primary stage, 36% at the middle and 33% at the secondary/higher secondary level whereas the number of primary teachers has increased more than three times during this period, for the middle schools there is more than ten times increase and for high/higher secondary stage also there is nearly nine times increase during this period (See Table 13).



FIG 11

Percentage female teachers to total at the school stage in India 1950-51 to 1998-99

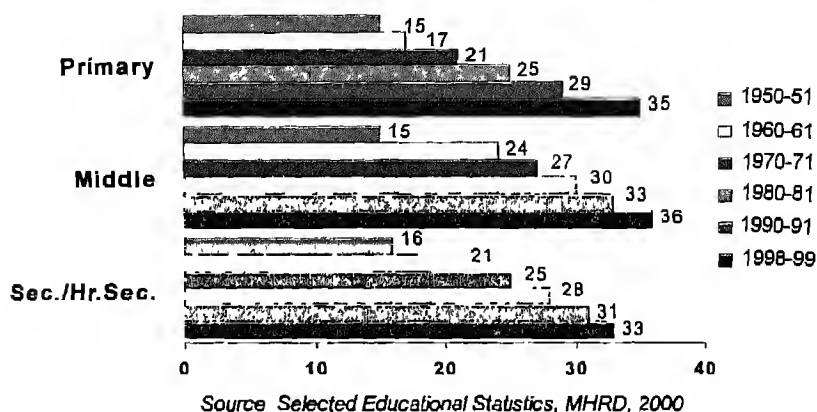


TABLE 13  
Number of school teachers by sex in India 1950-51 to 1998-99  
(in thousands)

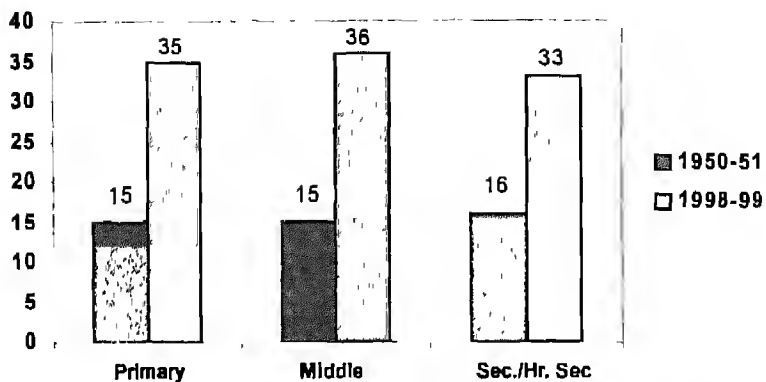
Year	Primary			Middle			High/Hr Secondary		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1950-51	538	456	82 (15)	86	73	13 (15)	127	107	20 (16)
1960-61	742	615	127 (17)	345	262	83 (24)	296	234	62 (21)
1970-71	1080	835	225 (21)	638	463	175 (27)	629	474	155 (25)
1980-81	1363	1021	342 (25)	851	598	253 (30)	926	669	257 (28)
1990-91	1616	1143	473 (29)	1073	717	356 (33)	1334	917	417 (31)
1998-99	1904	1246	658 (35)	1278	814	464 (36)	1748	1169	579 (33)

Source: Annual Report, 1998-99, Department of Education, MHRD and Selected Educational Statistics, Various volumes.

(Figures in parenthesis indicate percentage share of female teachers to total teachers at each stage).

FIG 12

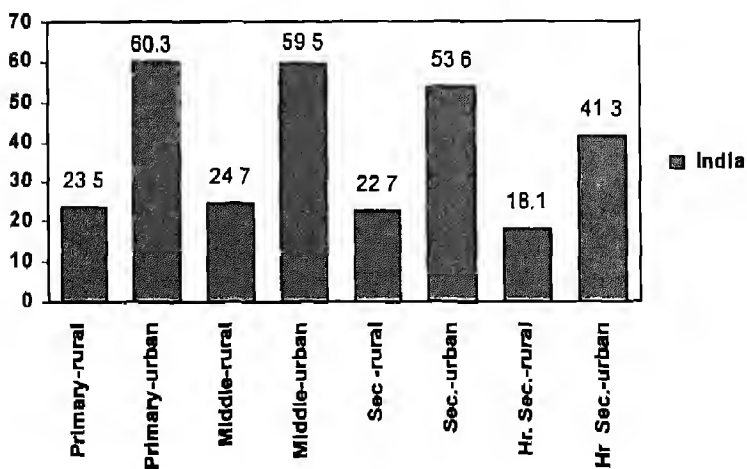
Percentage female teachers to total at the school stage in India  
1950-51 to 1998-99



Source: *Selected Educational Statistics*,  
Department of Education, MHRD, 2000

FIG. 13

Rural urban divide among women teachers at  
school stage in 1993



The primary stage continues to suffer from shortage of teachers in that the phenomenon of multi grade teachers with two to three teachers managing a primary school is a common sight in rural areas. Under the Operation Blackboard (OB) scheme an attempt was made to phase out single teacher schools and their number substantially decreased as reported in the Sixth All India Educational Survey. In the OB scheme while phasing out single teacher schools, it was mandatory that the second teacher to be added under this central scheme would be female in case the earlier teacher was male. Many states made sincere effort to place women teachers in rural schools under the scheme and even an increase in their quotas in teacher training institutions at the time of recruitment.

This has borne results in that the women teachers have improved their share in the total from 15% to 35 % at the primary level, 15 % to 36 % at the middle stage and from 16% to 33 % at the high/ higher secondary stage.

Regional disparities are extremely large. In 1998-99, the percentage of female teachers to total in the states and union territories ranged from.

- 19% in Bihar to 92% in Chandigarh at the primary stage;
- 17% in Assam to 89 % in Chandigarh at the middle stage, and from
- 16% in Bihar to 80% in Chandigarh (See Appendix Table 9)

### **Rural Urban Gap**

The aggregate picture, however, hides the continued shortage of female teachers in rural areas as is evident in Table 13. While urban schools are overstaffed and crowded with women teachers, the rural schools have both staff shortage and very low presence of female teachers. This factor is aggravated in low female literacy states and continues to hamper educational participation of girls especially at the post primary stages. (See Appendix Table 8) As field studies show there is a clear demand for more women teachers at all levels especially at the post primary stages. Parents do not appear to be averse to coeducation but feel that presence of women on the teaching/administrative staff of these schools is a must. During some field visits even the all male teachers faculty of rural schools expressed that having one or more women teacher is necessary even in primary schools as girls feel shy and do not open up much and

are unable to share their problems and anxieties. There was a general feeling that women teachers especially at the post pubertal stage can enhance the self confidence of girls through systematic counselling, besides being good role models. (Nayar, 1993-94, 1996-97)

TABLE 14  
Percentage share of female teachers to total by level and by rural urban areas in 1993

Area	Primary	Middle	Secondary	Hr Sec
Rural	23.45	24.66	22.72	18.10
Urban	60.25	59.47	53.58	41.25
Total	31.41	35.08	33.92	31.57

Source, Sixth All India educational Survey, NCERT, 1998.

The acute shortage of women teachers has been an area of concern and debate for more than hundred years. Recommendation of Education Commission 1882 to financially support rural girls for teacher training through residential programmes is valid even to day but little has been done on this account. The emphasis has been on recruitment of more women teachers or at best quotas in teacher training which was obviously utilized by urban women.

The Central Scheme to finance additional women teachers for rural areas in the Sixth Plan was withdrawn in the Seventh Plan. The explanation — urban women get recruited and later manage transfers to their respective urban locations. This is hardly to be faulted considering (a) the Indian male dominated family structure, (b) poor availability of basic amenities of health, housing, hygiene and education in rural areas, and (c) lack of quotas for rural women in recruitment and teacher training. The problem is more basic. Secondary and higher education of women continues to be an urban elite middle class phenomenon. Rural girls do not get as far as secondary/higher secondary education to become eligible for entry into primary teacher training.

It is pertinent to state that the proportion of women teacher is very low in low female literacy belt, each affecting the other. There is a need to increase secondary/higher secondary opportunities for

rural girls on a priority basis to end the vicious cycle of rural female illiteracy, low enrolments and lack of women teachers in rural areas (Nayar, 1993)

### Education of Out of School Girls

A premier area of concern in the education of the girl child is the formulation of action programmes in the area of elementary and secondary education focusing on the education of out of school girls. A major chunk of girls in the age groups of 10-18 are out of school

TABLE 15  
Estimated number of non enrolled children by sex at the elementary stage in 1997 ( in thousands)

	6-11 Years (Classes I-V)			11-14 Years (Classes VI-VIII)		
	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
Estimated population in the age group in 1997	62759	58403 (48.20)	121162	35580	31966 (47.32)	67546
Enrolment in 1997-98	61329	47453 (43.62)	108782	23646	15,841 (40.12)	39487
Non enrolled children in 1997-98	1430	10950 (88.45)	12380	11934	16125 (57.47)	28059

Source : *Selected Educational Statistics, 1997-98, Department of Education , MHRD*  
Figures in parenthesis indicate percentage girls to total.

- With respect to the UEE, the estimated out of school children in the age group 6-14 years were more than 40 million in 1997-98, of these, 67% are girls.
- In the age group 6-11 years (Classes I-V), there were more than twelve million children out of school, of whom 89% were girls
- In the age group 11-14, estimated out of school children were to the tune of 28 million, of whom 58% were girls.
- In absolute terms, a total of 27 million girls were out of school, 11 million in the primary age group and 16 million in the upper primary age group
- Assuming that there are 20-25% over age/underage children in the system, the number of out school children in the specific age groups could even be higher.

- The NSSO (1998) data on attendance rate estimates 89.64 million children not attending school in 1995-96, 65.52 million in the age group 6-11 years and 24.12 million in the age group 11-14 years (Quoted from Takroo, 1999)
- The MHRD Draft EFA 2000 Assessment on Core EFA Indicators puts this figure at 35.06 million in the age group 6-11 years after allowing for 21.54% underage and over-age children in Classes I-V. None the less, it is clear that the problem exists even if different figures are arrived by different agencies.

Till very recently, girls in this age group were not covered by any government programme for health care and nutrition either. Presently these girls are being addressed through the following programmes: The NFE (Non Formal Education) programme of the Department of Education, MHRD as a centrally sponsored scheme for the out of school children in the age group 6-14 years. The scheme is being implemented by the state governments and several NGOs. The Centre gives assistance to the state governments on 50:50 basis for coeducational centres and on 90:10 basis for exclusively girls' centres. The NGOs get 100% assistance. Presently, more than 30,000 NFE centres are running but these largely cater to the primary level. A total of seven million children are enrolled in these courses and girls form about 40 % of those enrolled. So far the NFE programme has remained pitched at the primary level. There is merit in strongly operationalising NFE Part II aimed at providing middle school level education to children for accessing post primary education to girls in rural areas and in urban slums.

The National Open School (NOS), runs courses for out of school girls and women as well as for other categories of employed personnel who are desirous of completing the ten year/secondary level open school course and higher general and vocational secondary education course. The NOS also conducts a course for adolescent girls and adult women named the Paripurana Mahila Yojana which covers a vast range areas of women's empowerment to include legal literacy, health and nutrition, general awareness and others. The NOS has worked out a course equivalent to Class III and is presently working on Class V syllabus to enable the neo literate to attain primary level competencies. Further, girls and women can take up the middle and secondary school examinations of the State Boards as private candidates. Some states have already started State Open

Schools as in Tamil Nadu and Haryana and girls are utilizing these opportunities.

The Central Social Welfare Board (CSWB) has a major scheme of Condensed Courses for girls and women in the age group of 15-35 years from among the disadvantaged sections of rural and urban areas who for some reason or the other have either missed schooling or have dropped out of the system. These are two year courses leading to Primary, Middle, Secondary and Vocational education which are awarded to NGOs through the State Social Welfare Boards all over the country.

The Department of Women and Child Development (MHRD) also has a scheme for adolescent girls entitled Balika Yojana being carried out in some blocks at the ICDS centres. These girls are given inputs of education, health and nutrition education among others, and, are expected to help the Anganwadi workers in their tasks.

In the Ninth Five year Plan, provision has been made to fund and support innovative educational programme for adolescent out of school girls in the age group 12-18 years in the Department of Education, MHRD. The Ministry of Health and Family Welfare also has a very large programme for adolescent girls as part of its Reproductive and Child Health (RCH) Programme. The Ministry of Labour likewise is targeting out of school girls and women through some of its programmes.

### ***Second and Third Level General and Technical Education***

In the last decade, the approach to the education of girls and women shows a marked shift. Investment in female education is now being seen as a development imperative rather than a plain moral commitment, thus, lifting it from the plane of pure ethics to pure economics. We still posit the question as to the validity of this very expedient model where women's education is still being viewed as a means to an end (economic development) and not an end in itself. The planners and the policy makers are convinced that the payoffs of educating women are many, among them, higher age at marriage, a smaller family size, lower infant and child mortality, better educational and health inputs into the quality of life of the family/household, and higher productivity, among others. Rarely does one come across a fundamental issue that education is a basic human right and half the human species are female who have a

right to half of the educational places, and an equal share in economic and political opportunities and in family and societal decision making as all decisions affect them as much and at times more. A major assumption is that education alone can equip them with skills for employment making them self reliant and self confident. This would then give them the capacity to take vital decisions about themselves and about societal affairs at large.

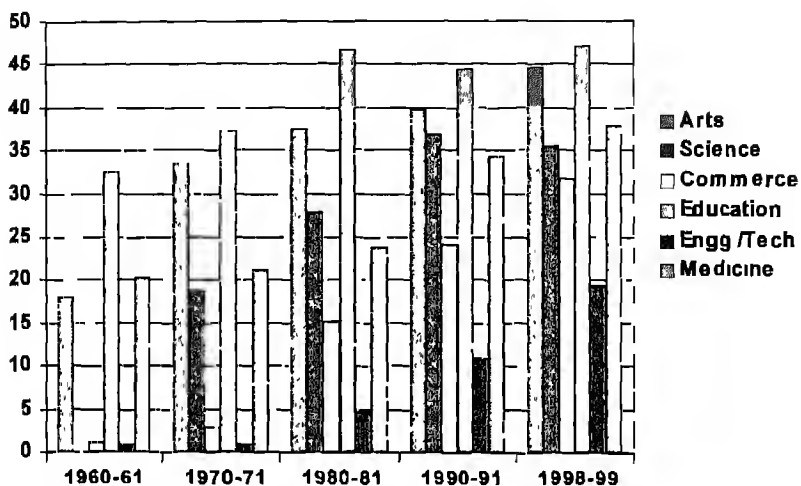
There are two clear axes of promotion of vocational and technical education of girls viz , expansion of educational facilities and a policy of undifferentiated curricula. Theoretically, all formal and non-formal education and training programmes are open to women. In addition provision exists for opening of separate institutions or separate wings for women/girls exclusively. Education is free for girls up to the higher secondary stage and several states have made education free for girls right up to the university level. Besides free education for children up to the age of fourteen, there are incentive schemes like free noon meals, free books, free uniforms and attendance scholarships for girls and nomad children. The coverage of these schemes is very low. Girls belonging to SC/ST receive additional benefits like stipends, residential facilities. Post matric scholarships are given to all SC and ST students for general and technical higher education and they also enjoy reservations in all higher education institutions/courses and job reservations and reservations in legislatures. There is no gender disaggregated data available on most of the schemes for SC and ST students. Very recently some states have announced reservation of seats for girls in technical education.

### ***Second Level General, Vocational and Technical Education***

Secondary education is a critical sector for future development of girls. It is here that diversification of curricula and streaming occurs. Secondary education has both preparatory and terminal functions. At the secondary and senior secondary stage, the number of schools have increased from 7,416 in 1950-51 to over 108 thousand in 1998-99. The enrolment of girls at this stage increased from 0.2 million to 10.5 million during the same period. The share of girls has increased from 13.3% in 1950-51 to 38% in 1998-99 at the secondary stage. Only 39% girls in this age group participate in secondary education compared to 59% boys.



FIG 14  
Girls as percentage to total by faculty in higher education in India  
1960-61 to 1998-99



Source Department of Education, MHRD

The lower participation of girls at secondary and senior secondary stage and in vocational and technical and professional education is a cause for concern. Secondary, vocational, and technical education is largely an urban middle class phenomenon. Rural and poor population has lower access and participation in these areas. There is a big gender gap as girls are lagging behind than boys and more so the girls from the disadvantaged groups are the worst off. At this stage girls lag behind not only in numbers but the type of courses they opt for and receive training in. Girls find it easy to opt for and are concentrated in courses such as arts and humanities and fewer girls enter into courses like science, mathematics and technology.

### Vocationalisation of Higher Secondary Education

This Centrally sponsored programme was introduced in 1976 to train the young students in middle level marketable skills and to reduce aimless entry into higher education. The scheme was expected to cover 50% of the secondary school graduates. The scheme was

able to cover only about 2.5% of students entering the higher secondary stage till 1986. By 1996-97, a capacity for 935,000 students has been created in 6476 schools. In terms of coverage, only 11.51 % of the total enrolment at the higher secondary level have joined the vocational stream in general education at this level. The scheme is presently implemented by all the states and union territories except Lakshdweep. In all 18,709 vocational sections have been approved in the 6,476 schools offering vocational education. Vocational courses being offered in general higher secondary education are:

*Technology Based Courses :* Computer Techniques; Repair and Maintenance of Radio and TV Receiver , Audio-visual Technician , Electronics Technology; Clock and Watch Repair ; Repair and Maintenance of Domestic Appliances , Draftswomen (Civil and Architectural) ; Electric Motor Winding.

*Commerce Based Courses :* Office Assistantship/Management ; Accountancy and Taxation/Auditing ; Marketing and Salesmanship, Insurance; Banking Assistantship, Purchasing and Storekeeping.

*Paramedical Courses :* X-Ray Technician , Medical Laboratory Technician; Dental Hygienist ; Pharmacist ; Hospital Housekeeping; Medical Record Documentation ; Sanitary/Health Inspector ; Ophthalmic Technician ; Physiotherapist or Occupational Therapist, Female Multi Purpose Health Worker (Auxiliary Nurse and Midwife)

*Agriculture Based Courses:* Dairying ; Poultry Farming; Sericulture; Inland Fisheries ; Fish Processing Technology; Nursery and Vegetable Growing.

*Home Science Based Courses:* Food preservation and processing; Bakery and confectionery; Textile Designing ; Commercial and Pre-School Management; Child and Family Welfare; Institutional Housekeeping; Catering and Restaurant Management, Interior Decoration; Dietetics and Meal Preparation.

*Humanities and Others:* Tourism and Travel Techniques; Health Care and Beauty Culture; Printing Technology; Hosiery; Photography; Commercial Artist; Library and Information Service, Law Assistant

### **Second Level Technical Education**

Presently, there are 4,171 Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) with a total enrolment of 440 thousand, out of which 13.4% per cent are girls. Of these ITIs, 214 are exclusively meant for women and others have Women's Wings. In principle, all ITIs are open to women. In 1066 Polytechnics, there are in all 357 thousand students, girls forming only 16.8 per cent of the enrolment. (MHRD, 1999-2000). Further, there is one National Institute for Vocational Training (NVTI) and four Regional Vocational Training Institutes (RVTIs) for women exclusively with a total capacity of 1496 students (1995-96 Annual Report of the Ministry of Labour). Women also receive training under the Apprenticeship training scheme of the Ministry of Labour, accounting for 2.6% of the total no of 272,755 trainees.

### **Higher, Professional and Technical Education**

There are 7494 colleges for general education, 540 engineering colleges, 755 medical colleges, 818 Colleges of Teacher Training, and 308 universities including institutions of national importance and research institutions serving more than six million students and scholars out of whom 39 per cent are girls their number having gone up by more than four times since independence. There are 1066 Polytechnics, ITIs 4171 and 1319 Teacher Training Schools (1999-2000 Departmental Statistics, MHRD)

Girls form:

- 40% of the students enrolled in B.A /B.Sc /B.Com.
- 38% of the M.B B S students,
- 40% of those studying in M.A / M Sc./ M Com.
- 43% of the B Ed. trainees
- 47 % of the student teachers enrolled in J.B.T. courses
- 30% of the students enrolled for the doctoral programmes
- 19.5% in Engineering and Technology courses
- 16.8% in Polytechnics; and
- 13% in ITIs.

The share of girls in various faculties has increased very substantially in Arts, Science, Commerce, Education and Medicine in the last four decades. However, girls continue to be way behind in Engineering and Technology (19.5%) , and in second level technical

education institutions except in teacher training schools. They form 16.8% of all students in Polytechnics and a mere 13% in the Industrial Training Institutions.

TABLE 16  
Enrolment of girls as percentage to total enrolment in higher education  
by faculty

Year 1	Arts 2	Science 3	Commerce 4	Education 5	Engg./Tech. 6	Medicine 7
1960-61	18.6	0.0	1.1	32.5	0.8	20.4
1970-71	33.5	18.8	2.8	37.3	1.0	21.3
1980-81	37.5	27.9	15.2	46.7	4.6	23.8
1990-91	39.8	36.8	24.0	44.4	10.9	34.3
1998-99	44.7	35.6	31.6	47.0	19.5	38.0

Source. Department of Education, MHRD

### Analysis

- (i) Secondary education is available only 39 girls out of 100 girls in the age group compared to 59 per hundred for boys.
- (ii) Girls are behind not only in numbers but the type of education they receive or opt for, it is qualitatively different from that of boys, and does little to alter their subsidiary position in the occupational structure. Girls go in primarily for soft courses in arts and humanities at the higher secondary stage thus limiting their occupational choices and chances. These choices are dictated by their actual or expected adult roles as mothers and as wives. Very little consideration is paid to their potential as productive workers. Curriculum continues to be gender stereotyped despite the stated policy of undifferentiated curricula.
- (iii) Three quarters of our population lives in rural areas but only 11,642 higher secondary schools are in rural areas as compared to 11882 in urban areas. Access of rural girls diminishes at every successive higher level of education. Whereas 87 per cent of 587,247 villages have a primary school, only 22 per cent are covered by middle schools, 8 per cent have a secondary school and about 2 per cent villages have a higher secondary school within the village (Sixth All India Educational Survey, NCERT,

1993). The rural girls get eliminated from the qualifying rounds and reach at best as far as the village hedge

- (iv) In 1993, there were only 0.72 million rural girls at the higher secondary stage compared to 1.77 million girls in urban areas. At the secondary level (Classes X-XII) also, the urban girls enrolled numbered 2.80 million compared to 2.71 million in rural areas. There are unserved areas in the country where there is no school for 10 to 20 km. As in some tribal belts, desert and hilly regions with low population density, girls from such areas are hardly expected to attend schools located at far off distance.
- (v) Urban middle class girls and women have benefited disproportionately from available vocational, technical and professional education facilities on account of their higher general education base and better physical access to these largely urban located institutions. Rural women and girls have little chance of entering formal or non-formal vocational education and training institution on account of poor literacy and general education base and still poorer physical access. Also, there are indications that gender stereotyping of vocational and technical courses are hard to break but not impossible. Urban upper middle class girls from professional parents/families are breaking new ground and are entering all scientific and technical fields, although their number is small. Gender lines are hard to cross in rural areas or small towns. Some attempts are being made to induct women in traditional male crafts in a few non-formal skill development programmes.
- (vi) Case studies and field observations lead one to conclude that vocational, technical and professional education of women appears to have advanced relatively faster in the major industrial states of Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra and even Andhra Pradesh, although the female literacy and basic education is fairly low in Andhra Pradesh. If we take note of the urban or semi-urban location of most vocational, technical and professional education and training institutions, the urban female literacy and educational participation rates are very high in Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra. Andhra Pradesh has a recent record of extensive efforts for women's development, including 30% reservation in all public sector jobs. This as we noted earlier, makes it attractive for the women beneficiaries of government training programmes who find ready and assured placement after training. The Andhra

experiment (Mahila Programme) also brings out the positive impact of certification. The courses of training are recognized by the Padmavathi Mahila Vishwa Vidyalaya, Tirupati. Pleasant and clean surroundings and leisure time activities, and the availability of creche and day care services for the young ones of the trainees make these training programmes very attractive. However, even these centres can cater only to a few hundred women at a time. As can be noted, the status of women indicators for Tamil Nadu are among the best in the country and fairly good in Maharashtra. There is less inhibition and lower negative discrimination against girls in these states and at least urban women seem to benefit from industrial education.

- (vii) The absence of pull factors of industrialisation and highly sexist orientation of the Hindu belt (Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan), has led to generally lower development of vocational and technical education in these states. Extremely poor levels of literacy and basic education of men and women makes development processes slow and ineffective. These states are also marked by poor and inadequate development infrastructures of education, health, roads, telecommunications, electricity water, etc. especially in the rural areas

### **Non-Formal Education Training Programmes**

Besides the formal educational institutions, there are forty five schemes of non-formal education and training run under eight central ministries, viz., Human Resource Development, Health and Family Welfare, Labour, Industries, Agriculture, Food & Civil Supplies, Science and Technology and Textiles. These schemes are aimed at development of literacy and a vast range of productive skills. All of these schemes are open to both men and women; 27 are exclusively meant for women for economic empowerment of women and the preparation of women development functionaries.

- There are some unique schemes for creating awareness among poor rural women and for mobilising them for action, e.g., awareness generation camps, setting up of Mahila Mandals (women's groups) and DWCRA (Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas) schemes of the IRDP (Integrated Rural Development Project) and Mahila Samakhyas (Education for Women's Equality) of the Department of Education of the MHRD.
- There are at least two schemes of the Department of Science

and Technology and Ministry of Industries that lay to develop entrepreneurship among women and orient them in project formulation, financial and credit management, marketing, etc. The management component is also found in two other schemes of the Department of Women and Child Development, viz, STEP (Support to Employment Programme) and setting up of Women's Development corporations

- In certain programmes like TRYSEM (Training of Rural Youth in Employment) of the IRDP, minimum of 33% seats were to be filled by women. Since women exceeded this quota during the Seventh Five Year Plan, there is upward revision to 40% seats being reserved for women w.e.f April 1, 1991. The KVIC (Khadi and Village Industries Commission) which runs over 90 vocational courses aimed at promotion of Khadi and 26 Village industries has a mandate to increase women's employment. Nearly half of those employed in KVIC industries are women.
- While gender stereotyping of vocational/technical courses continues as a rule in non-formal education programmes, there are some programmes like Socio-Economic Programme, Support to Employment Programme, Vocational Training Employment, Income Generation cum Induction Programme for women among others, which are breaking traditional stereotypes. Under the Socio-Economic Programme, production units and pre-employment training are made available to women for manufacturing small industrial items, light engineering goods, electrical and allied items, chemicals, ceramics and glassware, rubber, leather and canvas goods. The other two programmes offer women a variety of courses in the area of manufacture of scientific apparatus, educational equipment, watch and TV assembly, making of leather goods, prism grinding, electronics including components like aluminium electrolytic capacitors and sophisticated electronic equipment, and also computer operations. These programmes signify a move away from traditional female linked occupations to new and emerging vocations which are not yet sex typed. A remarkable achievement is that under the TRYSEM programme, women are now being trained in traditional male crafts e.g. Patchitrakatha in Orissa, rosewood decoration pieces in Karnataka and carpet weaving in Rajasthan.
- The Department of Women and Child Development, Ministry of Information and Broadcasting and some specialized

organizations have produced several short films and TV features for projecting a positive, non-traditional image of women and girls.

- During the Seventh Five Year Plan 30% quota was reserved for women in poverty removal programmes like National Rural Employment Programme (NREP) and other schemes of IRDP, preference being given to women headed households. There are several schemes now for making credit facilities available to women individually and even in small groups of five or more.
- Among the innovative schemes for women, *Mahila Prangnams* (Development of Andhra Pradesh stands out of rural poor women through skill training) Women receive stipends, free boarding and lodging, free recreational facilities and are allowed to keep children below 3 years with them during the training period. Further the Padmavati Mahila Vishva Vidyalaya, Tirupati grants recognition and awards certificates on completion of training. Women thus trained also have assured employment in the state services/sector (30% quota is reserved for women) or in production centres of these programmes.
- *Role of NGOs.* Further it is noted that many NGOs are engaged in vocational training under the centrally sponsored schemes of the government of India and on their own. The more successful among them are those NGOs which are also engaged in research and development activities and undertake action research, programmes of awareness generation, income generation and integrated development for women. Some of these organisations have been able to reach out to women of indigent groups and even those among them living in inaccessible areas. These programmes are local specific and have the advantage of being planned for more homogeneous smaller groups, often in partnership with the trainees. Some of them have been expanded to cover larger areas and population groups. The programmes of Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA) in Ahmadabad, the Social Work and Research Centre in Tilonia in Rajasthan, Centre for Women's Development Studies (CWDS) Delhi; Aditi in Bihar; YWCA; NAIKA; Joint Women's Programme, Delhi; Working Women's Forum, Madras; Karmika Delhi have almost generated a movement in the direction of empowerment of women through consciousness raising and imparting of skills required



for self reliant production and employment. The value of their experiments lies in their innovativeness and for evolving new strategies for raising the status of women through training and skill development.

- *Role of International Agencies* There are several international development agencies like DANIDA, SIDA, NORAD, FAO, UNICEF, etc. which are promoting vocational and technical education of women through non-formal programmes under the central government schemes of various ministries. However, small in scale, the skill development programmes supported by these international agencies cover a wide range of non-traditional trades and occupations, thereby, acting more as catalysts. For example the DANIDA assisted Mahila Samakhya—an educational project of the MHRD sees organisation and collectivisation of women as a major aspect of their empowerment, likewise, NORAD assisted projects (started in 1982) impart skills in areas of light engineering, electricals and allied electronics, manufacture of scientific equipment, chemicals, small industrial items, sport goods, manufacture of leather goods, tassar silk reeling, textiles, garment making, hand printing, screen printing and dyeing, book binding, etc. UNICEF, for instance, initiated the training of unlettered tribal women in repair of hand pumps in Rajasthan and continues to support the Development of Women, Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA) under the IRDP, in addition to the Integrated Child Development Services (ICDS) aimed at health, education and nutrition of young mothers and children below six years of age. The ICDS, itself is a major innovative programme for rural and urban poor women and children, but its coverage is low at present

### ***Shortfalls, Barriers and Constraints***

While we admit the substantial policy gains of Indian women, in the last few decades, the implementation of these highly progressive policy continues to be partial, often unsupported by adequate financial outlays, appropriate institutional structures and expertise. For example, while NPE 1986 noted the educational and skill lag of women, the intent to remove this snag is not accompanied by commensurate allocation of funds and efforts, or even institutional structures. The National Perspective Plan (1988-2000), had a sharp

rural focus and saw education and training of women for employment and income generation a core component along with health, nutrition, legal literacy and communications. There was a proposal to set up a National Resource Centre to reach out vocational and technical education and training to women. The proposal never came off. There is as yet no national MIS for women's vocational and technical education. The Department of Women and Child Development is making its best effort to motivate and liaise with training section of various ministries. The Ministry of Labour has set up a Women's Cell to monitor the progress of women trainees. In most other Ministries and Departments, some officer or other is given the additional charge of looking at the women's problem for purpose of answering public queries and parliament questions and for maintaining files marked "Women".

- As is evident from the study (Nayar, 1989), vocational and technical education and training continues to be a Central subject and nearly all the formal and non-formal courses and schemes flow from central ministries through their state counterparts and at times are totally controlled by the Centre. This leads to over-centralization, bureaucratic delays, lack of coordination and often waste of expenditure and effort.
- Illiteracy and lack of education is a major barrier in girls and women gaining access to vocational, technical and professional education. Barring a few non-formal training schemes which do not lay down any formal education requirement, all of the vocational, technical and professional education and training courses have ten to twelve years of general education as a pre-entry requirement. This disqualified bulk of women and girls especially those belonging to educationally and economically, under served, under developed rural areas and marginal groups of population
- Despite four decades of development planning and educational expansion, 50 out of every 100 females above seven years of age are illiterate (NSSO, 1997). Female literacy rate varies from 21% in Rajasthan to 87% in Kerala. In 1981, rural female literacy was below 5% in 181 districts for SC and ST females. On the whole 122 of 412 districts had less than 10% female literacy. While the National Literacy rate for urban women was about 47.82, it was 18% for rural females, 13% for SC females and only 8% for tribal women. Of the 18% rural literate women only 43% had primary

and middle education; 7% had ten to twelve years of education; only 0.08% had non-technical diploma below degree level, 0.25% had technical diploma below degree level and 0.74% were graduate and above. The comparative figures for urban women were 49%, 19.31%; 0.12%, 0.34% and 5.75% respectively

- Permanent literacy is a function of at least five years of effective schooling or its equivalent. Female literacy in India is largely a function of expanded schooling facilities and these are not distributed equitably between rural and urban populations. In 1986-87 enrolment of girls in selected classes to total enrolment of girls in Class I showed stark rural-urban divide. For 100 girls in Class I, there were 40 rural and 64.24 urban girls in Class V; 17.77 rural and 51.82 urban girls in Class VIII; 9.33 rural and 35.85 urban girls in Class X and only 1.44 rural and 14.04 urban girls in Class XII
- By far secondary and higher education is an urban middle class preserve as far as women are concerned. Also, nearly all of the vocational, technical and professional education institutions are located in urban areas
- Girl's participation in second and third level vocational and technical education is highly sex stereotyped. Girls are concentrated in general arts, science and commerce courses or in teaching; account for a third of the medical students but are way behind in engineering and technical education at the second level. Even in the Polytechnics, girls are crowded in non-engineering, home science based courses. Girls in non-engineering trades were concentrated in cutting, tailoring, needlework, weaving, knitting, stenography, hand composing, proof reading and book binding
- Girls form 46% of those enrolled in vocational courses (covering about 10% of students) in general higher secondary education but in a limited number of female sex stereotyped courses. Despite the national policy of undifferentiated curricula, states adopt a restrictive attitude in providing vocational courses. Girls are seen mainly as home makers and child bearers, boys are the ultimate breadwinners as far as educational planners and administrators are concerned. Parental conservatism contributes further.
- Educational and vocational guidance services either do not exist or are essentially inactive in girl's institutions. There is further

lack of investment in physical facilities and inadequacy of teaching in girl's institutions. Poor quality of teaching in science and mathematics at lower levels dissuades and disqualifies many girls from vocational and technical education. A good foundation of mathematics and science is essential for all technology based, paramedical courses, commerce and agriculture and even some of the home science based courses. According to some studies, girls opting for non-traditional courses find employment difficult on account of the employer's bias and rigid ideas of gender appropriate roles. Personal secretaries to industrialists and top managers can be female but not industrial supervisory and management cadres.

### **Non-Formal Education and Training**

The existing vocational training facilities for out of school women and girls are very inadequate considering the massive requirement.

- The rural lag is most prominent. Most of these training institutions are located in urban or semi-urban areas, although the training schemes are intended for rural and urban poor women, both. Rural women are constrained by lack of time (with a 15-19 work hour day) and resources to commute long distances away from their homes. Residential facilities and child care services are offered only in very few training programmes. Women in dire poverty can ill afford the opportunity cost. The benefits of most schemes accrue to the relatively better off women.
- Majority of the schemes have matriculation and above as a pre-entry requirement, some require middle or primary school pass. As noted at 4.3 of 18% rural females who are literate, only 3% have matriculation and above qualifications, only 15% are educated upto the middle level and only 37% are primary school graduates; 39% are literate without any educational level. As access even to non-formal vocational and technical courses is based on minimum general education, rural girls and women lag behind for lack of adequate general education opportunities within the formal system. It was noticed that literate/educated women fared better on skill development courses which had no pre-entry educational requirement. On the other hand the functional/skill in the major national adult education programme is nearly absent. Also, functionality for women is seen mainly related to their domestic/child care skills.

- There is lack of a coherent overall frame for vocational and technical education and training for women. The projects and programmes suffer from over centralization and bureaucratic delays. The quality of outcomes of each project differs on account of a multiplicity of agencies — governmental and non-governmental that are implementing these schemes. The total effort appears piecemeal, ad-hoc and covers very small numbers and is expensive. Follow up being weak or non-existent, even the organizers at times are at a loss to know anything about the impact of their training. The Ministry of Labour has set up a placement cell which is a positive step in this direction.
- At times, vocations and trades selected are not in accordance with the local demand, hence, making it difficult for trainees, more so women to get employment. Interestingly, TRYSEM, a scheme meant for equipping rural youth with skills for self-employment, does not achieve this objective. Instead, most of the youths trained under this scheme are more likely working for wages.
- The period of training under most schemes ranges from six days to six months. The vocational skills thus imparted are seldom of comparable quality with the formal system. Despite this, the success of several programmes was noted by us especially where production units were attached to the training centres or where employment was assured and post training support was provided.
- Most programmes emphasise the skill component and do not develop self confidence and other complementary skills of credit know-how, procurement of raw materials, marketing, financial management, project formulation, industrial management, etc. Training programmes for women also need back up services in the areas of credit, procurement of materials, marketing, labour laws and industrial relations, and post training technical support. There is now an attempt to integrate these elements in some of the programmes.
- In schemes that are meant for both men and women, gender disaggregated data is not always available to monitor the participation of women and the impact of these schemes of them. The participation of women is generally poor in such schemes and men seem to benefit disproportionately. Lack of women instructors and female extension workers is noticed further, these schemes are run mainly by male functionaries and cater

mainly to the male life cycle. Little effort is made to increase participation of women or to re-orient the training strategies to suit women's needs.

- Most training programmes for women continue to be in conventional areas to improve and aid their reproductive roles and domestic skills although there is also a small movement away from these to traditionally male preserves and modern trades and vocations which have not yet become sex type cast. Women tend to be concentrated in few trades, viz, cutting and tailoring, embroidery, stenography, knitting, weaving and spinning, food preservation or in training sectors preparing female development functionaries. Only a small percentage of total admissions in engineering based courses are female. In urban areas some women are moving over to non-traditional areas but in rural areas, the gender lines are difficult to cross and occupations continue to be determined by rigidities of cast and gender.
- As field observations show, because of over centralised bureaucratic nature of certain central schemes, these are NGOs which end up as "copy book" implementers and lose their flexibility and innovativeness. In certain schemes being implemented solely through the NGOs (e.g. schemes of Condensed and Vocational Courses of CSWB), it was noticed that the preferences of NGOs varied very sharply and most of their personnel had little or no training in crucial areas of programme/project formulation and planning, as also in the areas of financial management. The training of trainers is another weak spot of the NGOs which they share with the various governmental schemes of non-formal education and training.

### **Conclusion**

Considering the massive education and skill deficits of rural women and girls and the continued under development of rural areas, there is need for reordering development priorities and strategies. Gender sensitive development planning would require not only redeployment and re-allocation of national resources and relocation of training facilities, but also creation of employment opportunities and setting up of agro-based industries and other small scale industries in rural areas. Rural schools, roads, rural electrification, safe drinking water, health and housing, sanitation, cheap fodder and fuel are the

minimum essential conditions for redressing the educational and social disadvantage of rural women and girls

The status of women is an important variable in promoting access of women and girls to education in general and to vocational, technical and professional education and training in particular. The state policies in terms of concrete programmes of women's education and training, accompanied by assured placement in jobs, are likely to alter the present value structure of negative discrimination against girls and women. This has to be accompanied by making women full partners in societal decision making, from family and grass root level political bodies to national legislative bodies, in the corporate sector and the bureaucracy. There is a lot of work for development planners, for educational and media personnel, for informed men and women to translate the legal and constitutional equality of women into social action. Tinkering and tokenism, piece meal action, a few more schemes, a few more institutions is not the answer. Education and employment of women has not to be seen merely as an economic imperative for increasing productivity, but for developing in women and girls a new confidence in their own abilities and more self fulfillment. A simultaneous effort would be needed to redefine gender roles to make intra household division of labour more equitable. Or else the Chinese saying, "women are donkeys, they work at home and they work outside". The double bind kills more poor women and leads to low productivity among rural females. India's women are an endangered species. Sex ratio touched an all time low of 927 (women per 1000 men) in 1991. Education and training of such women has to be adequately backed by health and nutrition and human conditions of living.

## SECTION THREE

# Women's Empowerment

THE National Policy on Education 1986 and its Programme of Action reiterated the need to operationalize the Constitutional guarantee of equality between sexes and the protective discrimination clauses therein, by making education an effective instrument of women's equality and empowerment. The Programme of Action (POA) laid down the following parameters of women's empowerment:

- Enhance self esteem and self confidence of women
- Building a positive image of women by recognizing their contribution to the society, polity and the economy
- Developing the ability to think critically
- Fostering decision making and action through collective processes, enable women to make informed choices in areas like education, employment and health (especially reproductive health)
- Ensuring equal participation in development processes
- Providing information, knowledge and skills for economic independence, enhancing access to legal literacy and information relating to their rights and entitlements in society with a view to enhancing their participation on an equal footing in all areas

Besides the laudable efforts of the women's movement that spurred state action and mobilized women, India holds the distinction of state sponsored mobilization and organisation of women at the grassroots level.

The women scholars and activists who participated in the formulation of the historic 1986 National Policy on Education and its POA were backed by experience, research evidence and the special institutional structures and policies of the UN Development Decade 1975-85. The concept of women's empowerment was much debated, challenged and finally became a writ for the nation as not only all educational institutions but also all official agencies and ministries



were asked to gear their programmes to achieving women's equality and empowerment. These programmes and schemes range from awareness generation, legal literacy and legal aid, self help credit groups, training for self employment, training in areas of agriculture, horticulture, sericulture, small scale industries, food preservation, leather technology, handlooms, computers, entrepreneurship, condensed courses of education, vocational and technical training for participation in local self government among others.

### **Highlights**

State Sponsored Fact Finding Mission in the wake of the shocking revelations of the 1971 Census. Setting up of the Committee on the Status of Women which gave its report Towards Equality in 1974 before the start of the UN Development Decade for Women (1975-85).

- State Sponsored Mobilisation of Women — WDP project of the Government of Rajasthan, which formed the base of the MHRD, Department of Education initiative of Mahila Samakhya, later Integrated Women's Empowerment Project of Haryana, and others.
- State schemes for education and survival of the girl child and for adolescent girls.
- Gender focus in all Education for All and Health for All programmes and gender sensitization of all government personnel

### **Some Significant Experiences**

The Women's Development Programme (WDP) of the Government of Rajasthan was the first state effort at the mobilisation and organisation of village women. The WDP was the precursor of a major women's empowerment initiative of the Department of Education of the MHRD of the Government of India, namely the Mahila Samakhya. The project goal is to empower women to take control of their own lives and question and the forms of social organizations that paralyse women and put into limbo their power (*shakti*). The project aims to create a demand for literacy but at a pace determined by the participating women themselves without the pressure for fulfilling quantitative targets. Mahila Samakhya was launched in 1989 in three states, namely, Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka and

Gujarat in 10 districts has now expanded to 42 districts in eight states. Mahila Samakhya, a women's development empowerment project is unique that it is state sponsored and is imbued with Indian and Nordic Feminism which "pre-supposes that education can be a decisive intervention in the process towards women's equality." Mahila Samakhya, among others has generated demand for girls' education in its areas of operation and female literacy besides addressing crucial gender issues and development needs of their respective locations.

The Government of Haryana for instance is implementing an Integrated Women's Development Programme with the financial support from the UNFPA and the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare of the Government of India. Organizing and mobilizing women around issues of health, education and legal rights is creating a new perspective among the women of rural areas. Girl's education is a major priority of the project and a stipend is given to the school attending daughters of the women who are regular participants in the project meetings and programmes.

### **Gender Equality through Curriculum and its Transaction**

India took an early lead in this area as early as 1976-77 when the women's Education Unit of the NCERT organised a historic workshop attended by leading experts and teachers from the school system as well as from the universities to identify Values Commensurate with the Status of Women. In line with these identified values, handbooks for teachers were prepared by the subject teachers and other experts in the countrywide workshops. These were:

- (1) Status of Women through Curriculum Handbook for Elementary Teachers
- (2) Status of Women through Curriculum for Secondary Teachers
- (3) Status of women through Teaching of Mathematics A Teachers' Handbook

This was also a period when the NCERT took a lead to identify and eliminate the element of sex bias in school textbooks. Guidelines on Identification and Elimination of Sex Stereotypes from Education

Programmes and School Textbooks Suggestions for Action in the Asia and Pacific prepared by the NCERT was published by the UNESCO in October, 1985. It was an intense period of work in this area. Evaluation tools were developed and analysis of a large number of textbooks was carried out from the point of view of sex bias and work was started on the development of exemplar materials and supplementary readers reflecting the positive contribution of women to society since the immemorial. The Women's Education Unit was reconstituted as Department of Women's Studies (DWS) soon after. The DWS has played a major role in the revision of the NPE 1986 and its POA 1992 with respect to Education for Women's Equality and the implementation of the NPE.

### **The National Curricular Framework (1988)**

The National Curricular Framework emphasizes the core value of equality between sexes which is a constitutional right and had received major attention in the NPE, 1986 (revised 1992). The National Curricular Framework also emphasizes ending of social evils and practices derogatory to the dignity of women, environmental protection, small family norm, national integration, democracy and secularism. The POA (revised in 1992) emphasized the need to remove gender bias from textbooks and school curriculum and underlined the need to gender sensitize all educational personnel so that equality between sexes gets internalized through a gender sensitive and gender inclusive curriculum and its transaction. All major education commissions and committees advocate implementation of an undifferentiated curricula.

In the wake of NPE 1986, the NCERT has been working consistently for promoting gender equality through the curriculum and its transaction. A number of orientation programmes were organized in states to develop tools for evaluation of textbooks and supplementary readers from the view point of gender bias in state languages. Further in all orientation and training programmes and workshops at national and regional levels the evaluation of textbooks form an integral part of the activities. The findings of evaluation studies were shared with concerned departments and agencies. During 1985-97 over 1000 of textbooks and supplementary reading material were evaluated. Under the DPEP — Gender Studies (1993-95) primary textbooks of eight states i.e. Assam, Haryana, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Kerala and Orissa

were also evaluated from gender point of view. Presently, a fresh exercise is on to evaluate present textbooks as to how far they reflect gender equality and women contribution to society.

A number of publications and exemplar resource materials, teachers handbooks were brought out by the NCERT with a view to promoting values commensurate with status of women and gender equality through curriculum after 1986. The more prominent among these include (i) Image of Women and Curriculum (1986), (ii) Annie Besant (1987), (iii) Undoing the Damage (1988), (iv) Kshati Puri (Hindi version of Undoing the Damage, 1991), (v) Dahej Dawanal (1988), (vi) Begam Hajrat Mahal (1989), (vii) Image of Women and Curriculum in Mother Tongue (1991), (viii) Portrayal of Women in Tamil Fiction (1993), (ix) Pathyakram Ke Madhyam Se Nari Samata Avam Adhikaron Ka Shikshan (1995), (x) Nisabi Kitabon Main Jinsi Masawat A Handbook for Urdu Teachers (1995), (xi) Women's Equality and Empowerment through Curriculum - Handbook for Primary Teachers and Head Teachers (1995), (xii) From Girl Child to Person . Resource Materials for Primary Teachers and Head Teachers (1995) , (xiii) Balika Mein Sakaratmak Atman Bodh Vikas Resource Materials for Teachers and Head Teachers in Hindi (1997), (xiv) Legal Literacy for Educational personnel with Focus on Girls and Women Resource Material (1997)

### ***Shaksham: Gender Sensitive Life Skills Approach to Curriculum Transaction at the Elementary Stage: A Proposed Intervention***

A two day national workshop was organised by Timnari, a Delhi based NGO under the auspices of the Joint GOI-UN System Education Programme, UNFPA and the NCERT on November 2-3, 1998 at the NCERT Campus. The programme was widely attended by experts drawn from national and international organisations and the NGOs working in this area. The workshop was preceded by a study based on primary and secondary data on the status of life skills in the existing curriculum and its transaction in the schools and in the programmes for out of school children. The major objective of the Workshop was to build a consensus regarding the need for adopting a gender sensitive life skills approach to the curriculum transaction at the elementary stage, both formal and non formal and for out of school children.

It was felt that this workshop had opened up an area which is new to India and has the added strength of a strong gender focus

with an equal emphasis on exposing both boys and girls to necessary life skills, the major challenge is however to implement this idea. Life skills need not be seen as a large vocational education programme requiring huge investments and infrastructure but something to be done by an ordinary teacher with the support of the parents and the community. The present educational process which stops mainly at the information level, generating at best skills of memorization and retention. No attempt is made to transact knowledge in a manner that it becomes practical wisdom and helps the young to negotiate life with ease. At present even the evaluation is limited to the testing of retention skills and all else receives a short shrift. The all round development of children does not take place as all teaching is geared to rote memorization. Even wisdom keeps on changing with time and thus flexibility is the quintessence. The life skills should be contextual keeping in view the time and space.

More specifically the social content of the roles of men and women has changed and women can no longer to be seen as progenitors of sons but as persons in their own right, especially in an age where on account of the small family size, a woman has something like four or five decades ahead of her when she would and should be doing a large amount of activities other than rearing of children. No work area in India, today, can be said to be a man or a woman's domain. All education and all occupations are open to both men and women and they have necessarily to work as equal partners with equal competence and hence must possess the basic life skills. School curriculum has to respond and we have to think of ways and means to integrate life skills in our educational programmes ensuring gender sensitivity and gender parity.

A very vital question which is bothering everyone, namely, the non implementation of the existing curriculum which has immense possibilities of inculcating life skills both in terms of time available and the content areas. We need to look into where we went wrong, to have a look at the National Curricular Framework (1988) for ten year general education and particularly the area of Work Experience, under which a large number of life skills have been included and something like 40% of the available time at the primary level and 32% at the upper primary level earmarked for non scholastic areas. Language and maths, have an equally strong potential for becoming the medium for acquiring life oriented skills and the right values, as both of these subjects need social content. School or formal education

were not alone in this game and a very strong ally can be found in media which has access to masses and can be a good teacher of life skills, if properly programmed

This is not an add-on programme but an approach. Saksham, the name given to the approach stands for a gender sensitive life skills approach to curriculum transaction. This concept of life skills goes much beyond economic skills, visualised under Work Experience Programme or the Socially Useful Productive Work in the National Curricular framework (1988). It includes all the skills necessary for day to day functioning and covers many areas such as the Family Life Education/ Population Education, Legal Literacy and Life Saving Skills which are strategic and are struggling to get into the formal curriculum. Besides, this approach is a bid to alter the unequal gender relations and would empower both boys and girls for a shared future and harmonious living. A major hall mark of the approach is that it is not seen as a work of specialists but is to be implemented by the teachers and the students with the support of the parents and the community, and that too keeping in view the field realities of multi grade schools with inadequate infrastructure and poor communities, especially in the rural areas. In the foreseeable future, bulk of our children would go only as far as the primary level and at best up to Class VIII. At the present juncture less than 25% villages have a middle school and girls normally do not cross the village boundary. There are millions of children and adolescents who are school dropouts and shut outs. All of these young persons would enter life, marry, have children, work for their living, set up small business or enter wage work. They would be the future aspirants and members of the Panchayats and local bodies and as alert citizens and human beings, fight social evils and human made/natural disasters, guarding their fundamental rights and fulfilling their duties. A world fraught with deceit, drugs, violence and disease these young ones have not only to learn to fight casteism, consumerism, partisan values but also must develop the capacity to harness science and technology for human development balancing the twin principles of growth and justice. The present system of education has all the possibilities and the potential at the level of principles to become a vehicle for inculcating the desired life skills, but ends up as mere conveyor of some unrelated, often unprocessed information is heavily dominated by the structure of a particular subject or a discipline and not its social application or practical wisdom and each lower

stage of education is dominated by the academic requirements of the next higher level, forgetting that India is still at a very low level of per capita education, perhaps three to four years and education has to take note of this. Further life skills programmes for out of school adolescents are being implemented by the NGOs who already put a premium on life skills, the formal school remains bookish and sterile in this area. The life skills proposed are the minimum critical skills strategic to present day living and are non negotiable. These are gender free, culture free and are needed by all. Only in transaction, we would need to know what all skills are already with a child from the family, from the school, from a particular locale and then attempt to complete the shortfall. The strategies can be local specific, culture specific but the end goal is to equip all our children with these generic skills.

### **Suggested Areas for Generic Life Skills Formation**

#### **A. Personal and Social Skills**

##### *Sound health and physical fitness*

- Personal hygiene, fitness, sports, games, exercise, yoga, meditation, etc

##### *Leisure time use*

- Aesthetics, reading, listening to music, hobbies, excursions, nature walks, planning holidays

##### *Effective communication*

- Oral and written skills e.g recitation, debate, elocution, well formed handwriting, composition, school magazine, reading habits

##### *Problem solving*

- Collect relevant facts and analyse the same for finding alternative solutions to day to day problems

##### *Decision making*

- Weighing alternatives, taking timely decisions

##### *Critical thinking*

- Ability to analyse and evaluate objectively and dispassionately

##### *Inter personal relationships*

- Relating pleasantly to friends, family, visitors, guests, public functionaries and community at large
- Working and playing in groups
- Ability to identify one's own

##### *Positive self concept*

- Strengths and weaknesses
- Capitalizing on one's strength and overcoming weaknesses

##### *Creative self expression*

- Writing, music, dance, art, craft especially through folk medium

#### **B. Household Related Skills**

##### *Household tasks*

- Cooking
- Nutrition (balanced diet, natural foods, properties of vegetables and herbs)
- Washing clothes
- Sweeping and cleaning
- Kitchen gardening
- Health and hygiene
- Mending
- Stitching

- Thrift
- Household remedies

#### *Domestic maintenance/technology orientation*

- Minor electrical repairs (putting a fuse, etc)
- Repair of water taps/hand pump
- Bicycle maintenance, greasing, putting a puncture, etc
- Whitewashing, painting
- Maintenance of domestic appliances—stoves, cookers
- Agricultural implements/processes
- Industrial implements/processes

#### **C Family Life Skills**

- Sex education, planned parenthood
- Responsible parenthood
- AIDS/HIV/STD awareness
- Drug abuse dangers
- Menstrual management (for girls)
- Handling/stopping family violence—verbal, physical
- Awareness about child abuse, sexual harassment
- Family as a living democracy
- Consciousness of rights and duties of all, just division of labour and resources respecting the dignity of all, women, men and children alike

#### **D. Life Saving Skills**

- Road Safety
- Fire fighting
- First aid (burns, injuries, snake bite, drowning, poisoning, etc)
- Home nursing
- Fighting natural hazards/calamities
- Averting hazards of pesticides
- Refuse management/disposal

#### **E. Accessing Public Services**

##### *Post and telegraph operations*

- Money order, registered mail, parcel, telegram, savings, etc

##### *Rail/bus services*

- Bookings, reading a railway time table, fares, etc.

#### *Banking operations*

- Opening & operating an account, bank draft, drawing a loan, savings and investments, etc

#### *Health and sanitation service*

- Advocacy for immunization
- Preventing disease and epidemics
- Preventing contamination of water sources
- Purifying water
- Proper sanitation, drainage
- Refuse management, etc

#### **F. Social Sensitivity**

- Empathy and care of poor, sick, aged, disadvantaged, and handicapped
- Fighting social evils like untouchability, dowry, early marriage, corruption, etc
- Valuing women's work and contribution
- Respecting the dignity of all women, men and children

#### **G Environmental Sensitivity**

- Protection of environment—all species
- Identification of pollution hazards/agents
- Conservation of resources
- Promoting eco friendly and bio degradable materials for daily use
- Love and care of plants and animals
- Averting hazards of pesticides, plastics, industrial effluents, poisonous emissions
- Fighting contamination of water sources—procuring clean drinking water
- Prevention of disease, infections, epidemics

#### **H. Skills for Democracy**

##### *Classroom and school*

- Skills for classroom as a democracy
- Skills to make school as a functioning democracy
- Mock parliament, voting, elections



- Participation, leadership, group cohesion, ability to appreciate other people's point of view, respecting and accommodating diversities, valuing freedom of expression, valuing other cultures and religions

## *Legal literacy*

- Knowing constitutional rights and duties
- Understanding functions of local self government, municipalities, legislatures and parliament
- Human rights, Rights of Child, Rights of Women(CEDAW)
- Consumer education
- Personal and social laws
- Labour laws

- Laws related to crimes against women
- Public interest litigation

## **I Work/Occupational Related Skills**

- Valuing all work, especially the work and contribution of women
- Valuing all skills, especially women's skills that are life nurturing and life sustaining
- Dignity of labour
- Work ethics—punctuality, honesty, hard work, diligence, time and space management, working in groups, institutional loyalty, etc
- Pre-vocational skills
- Entrepreneurship
- Small business management

## SECTION FOUR

### **Researches on Girl's Education**

THE post independence period saw the birth of formal educational and social research initially dominated by the "value free" empirical social sciences (influenced by the methods of the natural sciences and later becoming "value explicit" scientific inquiries and finally, the participatory exercises in the discovery of knowledge and its application to the melioration of human conditions. For good reasons, women's studies and later gender studies arrived as a part of the social sciences scene for the study of the women's question and to which women's education is central. Expectedly women's studies are increasingly influencing both the meta knowledge (concepts, theoretical positions, approaches and methodology) and the substantive knowledge produced on women, their condition, their aspirations and their struggles. Women's studies now concentrate on analyzing not only the objective conditions of gender disparities and gender inequalities but focus on the redefinition and restructuring of the social (gender) roles of men and women in the framework of equality. Also, women's studies are offering an alternative world view which is inclusive of women's knowledge and perspectives and redefines human interactions and human nature interaction to give development a human face and sustainability. Three significant but different strands of the morphology of the study of women's education need to be analyzed and understood; (i) university research in the area, (ii) the contribution of policy making expert groups, commissions and committees, and, (iii) growth of policy research with perspectives from feminism and women's studies

The 1986 policy on education (NPE) is a landmark in the evolution of status of women in India in that education has been given the mandate of bringing about women's equality and empowerment through revised curricula, reorientation of educational personnel

and making women's studies the drive arm for generating, studying and supporting action. It is important to note that researches generated by the pioneering women's research centres such as the Research Centre for Women's Studies, SNDT University, the Centre for Women's Development Studies (CWDS), Delhi, the Institute of Social Studies Trust (ISST), Centre for Women's Studies, Trivandrum and the two Women's Universities, Mother Teresa, (Tamil Nadu) and Padmavati (Andhra Pradesh), Indian Institute of Education, Pune and the Department of Women's Studies, NCERT are noteworthy. The NCERT took the initiative to set up the first chair in Women's Studies in the country in 1988. The researches that have emerged from these centres have had a definite influence in shaping not only educational policies, plans and programmes but giving a direction to the national effort in the area of women's development as equal partners in a secular democracy, also, bringing home the centrality of women's education to women's empowerment as a non negotiable area of societal progress and enhancement of women's status. After 1986, the researches have not only emerged from women's study centres on their own but a lot of policy researches have been commissioned by the national government and the UN system—UNESCO, UNICEF, ILO, WHO and other international agencies like the Commonwealth Secretariat. Researches reviewed indicate that while the universities appear to be getting somewhat more sensitive to problems of women and girls from different groups of population especially the disadvantaged sections, these are not influenced by feminist perspectives of women's study except in the three women's universities and other women's study centres in the country.

The perspectives in most studies till mid eighties, are distinctly drawn from the framework of social change where education of women leads to modernization of their attitudes and roles making some difference in their position vis-a-vis areas like family decision making, marriage and employment. The equality between the sexes dimension does not emerge, at best, an emancipatory role for education is visible that education is necessary for women and has a positive effect on women, their family and productivity is admitted.

Researches on education of girls and women in the Post NPE 1986 period make a departure when equality between the sexes enters centre stage and education is seen as an agent of empowerment, increased self awareness, better self image, consciousness of rights and possibilities opening up to women with

education Women with higher education, professional and technical, emerge as more self confident and in better command of their situation than before even if they may not have achieved complete equality. To be more precise, several studies reported appear to be influenced by the concepts, techniques and methodologies thrown up by feminist scholars and activists as reflected in the new discipline of women's studies Women's studies which were born out of women's activism continue to respond to changing the situation of women in a positive direction and above all making knowledge more holistic to include the female perspectives, their hopes and aspirations and a world view based on accommodation, harmony and peace The centrality of education to develop women as persons and women as active agents of national development is well established through national and cross cultural researches in the area of fertility and mortality

Comparative method in education was applied to major intra country comparative studies relating to primary education of girls namely Factors of Continuance and Discontinuance of Girls in Elementary Schooling (Delhi, Bombay, Orissa and Rajasthan) with focus on urban slums, scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and Muslim minorities (NCERT, 1992). Nearly 3000 households were included to analyse the problem The study drew its theoretical formulations from an earlier UNESCO sponsored study on Universalisation of Primary Education of Girls in Rural Areas in India (NCERT, 1993) and made a significant methodological contribution in the area of women's studies using the comparative method. In the area of elementary education, the studies bring out very clearly the factors responsible for continuance, discontinuance and non enrolment of girls in schools Predominantly the household factors of poverty and gender discrimination and community related social constraints account for girls not enrolling or dropping out The studies reconfirm the positive relationship between the economic standing of the household and female educational participation A comprehensive study on the girl child in India was launched by the Department of Women and Child Development, MHRD, Government of India through Women's Studies Centres of the Universities in 1992

The tradition of research based project planning is being born as reflected in the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) which has a component of gender studies as inputs into gender sensitive educational planning. Gender studies were carried out as

part of project planning and implementation of a national programme on primary education viz , DPEP of the Ministry of Human Resource Development under which gender studies form one of base line studies carried out as a planning input Gender studies were carried out in 44 low female literacy districts of eight states The studies were carried out in the participatory research mode with household and community as entry points Structured interview schedules were personally canvassed by the investigators to 13013 households, 2424 dropout girls, 4316 never enrolled girls, 792 teachers, 269 educational administrators and 416 community leaders. In addition, focussed group discussions were held with parents and community leaders (Nayar, 1995).

In rural areas, there is continued shortage of women teachers A major study has been completed on the problems related to recruitment and posting of women teachers at the elementary stage in rural areas of the four most populous, low female literacy states of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh The study finds that while some effort is being made to draw more women teachers into teaching at the recruitment point and even in teacher training institutions, the real malaise is the low and extremely poor outreach of rural girls to post primary education in rural areas and these girls are unable to complete higher secondary(12 Years) level which is the entry requirement for primary teacher's training.

The issues of the health and nutrition of the girl child have not been attended to both in research and in action It is only very recently that health and nutrition of the girl child has started receiving state attention. Efforts to promote health, education and economic skills of adolescent girls are on in several ministries and departments A major chunk of girls in the age group 10-18 are out of school and are being addressed through NFE, TLC and distance education. There is very little research reported on these three areas Further, the problems addressed and issues raised in relation to adolescent girls in research so far are primarily concerning adjustment, socio-psychological problems and self concept of school and college going girls. This leaves the out of school girls, who are addressed largely by the NGOs in their micro projects The scheme of the Government of India like *Balika Yojana* are meant for out of school adolescent girls and needs to be probed into with respect to its implementation to give us a measure of its achievements and shortfalls. Convergence of efforts of different departments, ministries and NGOs is lacking

A large number of special schemes and incentives have been in operation for decades specially for girls and women belonging to scheduled caste and scheduled tribes. While some studies bring out the positive impact of education on the attitudes of these groups, they also point out that despite acquiring educational and technical competence women of these groups find it hard to get employment. This raised further questions regarding the possible gender discrimination in hiring practices even where quotas for these groups are assured. When we view macro indicators, the positive effects of protective discrimination policies and programmes for SC/ST are visible in improved literacy rates and enrolment, but dropout continues to be very heavy. Outstanding experiments have not been studied; for instance the *Kanya Parishad* (a residential school complex for SC ST girls) in Kokshi (District Dhar) whose students compare favourably in self confidence, neatness, articulation and achievement with any of the leading high fee private schools of metropolitan cities.

Also, the impact of the large number of incentive schemes for girls and women of the Government of India and the state governments has not been studied. A regular flow of evaluative studies to document the successes and failures of these schemes and other gender interventions is necessary. These studies are best carried out by autonomous evaluation organizations and academic institutions. Without adequate data and research, effective policy and planning interventions cannot be made.

Major achievements and constraints of process oriented projects like Mahila Samakhya and other EFA initiatives like Lok Jumbish, the Education Project, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar Education Project and more recently, the District Education Programme (all claim girls as focus) need intensive studies by researchers besides formal evaluation by the funding agencies (MHRD, 1993).

While an analysis of the TLC campaigns shows that women form the bulk of the beneficiaries, the content and process of these campaigns needs to be studied thoroughly from the point of view of gender equity and awareness. The few studies in this area point out (a) the infrastructural and the planning and management deficiencies of adult learning centres. At least one study brings out very clearly the continued presentation of women in gender stereotyped roles in the literacy materials. Their inadequacy regarding lack of information on the legal rights of women (both among men and women), and a lack of gender sensitivity needs to be probed into. The materials

produced by an NGO more diversified in their packaging were found very radical in their messages and that of the government somewhat reactionary. The content and process of the TLCs requires immediate attention with a view to making them powerful agents of women's empowerment. Comparatively the content and process of school curriculum especially at the elementary stage appears to have received significant attention. At the present moment, the textbooks for instance display a continuum from stereotyped and often negative portrayal of women and girls to highly gender sensitive materials depicting equality between the sexes. However, more work needs to be done in the area of the portrayal of the positive contribution of women in all walks of life.

An Inter Country Innovative Pilot project on Universalisation of Primary Education among Girls and Disadvantaged Children in Rural Areas (Haryana) sponsored by UNESCO does present a model for this task as operationalized by the Department of Women's studies (DWS), NCERT during 1992-98. The project was conceptualised as a low cost feeder project to assist the State of Haryana in the universalisation of primary education achieving an equilateral triad of quantity, quality and equality. The massive enrolment drives carried out by the teachers of the State schools since early nineties resulted in schools overflowing with children but lacking in the basic minimum physical infrastructure and above all facing acute shortage of teachers, thus putting an immense strain on State resources. The quantitative expansion having taken place, the major challenge was improving the quality of primary education keeping the equity-equality focus sharply in the forefront. During Phase One, the project aimed at sensitizing and orienting the educational administrators, the teacher educators and the teachers in Haryana to the issues concerning girls' education and women's empowerment through a multilevel integrated research based district and action programme. This project, therefore, attempted not only to sensitize key actors in UPE at the state, district, block and village level but to help them bond into a group with a shared vision and common commitment. Need based local specific and research based training materials were generated bringing out the regional nuances especially with regard to the status of women. The concept of multilevel integrated training and action involving educators, administrators, teachers, the parents and the communities is a departure from conventional training strategies and approaches. Participatory research and interaction

with the educators, the parents, the community and the policy makers and IEC were the highlights of the methodology

During Phase Two, need was felt to re-strategize in order to sharpen the quality focus without letting up on gender equality and equality for other disadvantaged children. In an evaluation study of DPEP Phase I in Haryana, it became evident that with increasing economic prosperity, the parents were sending their male wards to private fee levying schools that had mushroomed in rural areas. The government schools were now largely catering to girls and other children from the weaker sections of the population who were unable to afford private schooling for their children and were drawn to State schools on account of incentives like, free noon meal, free textbooks, free uniforms and attendance prizes for girls of Scheduled Caste groups and nomadic tribes, among others. This is when these private institutions were running in small accommodation with relatively lower qualified teachers but were still producing near universal success in the State primary level board examinations with their students securing high percentage of marks. On the other hand, State schools had better accommodation, large school grounds and fully qualified teachers but short staffed on account of large influx of children, even under-aged ones. The teachers were in dire need of reorientation and in service training. The DPEP had put in a large effort to upgrade the physical infrastructure and also inputs for enhancing teacher capabilities, classroom appearance and decoration, improved textbooks, gender training and environment among others. It was therefore decided to move away from earlier project districts of Kaithal and Gurgaon which were now covered by the DPEP and also from District Faridabad which had shown good progress during the project period.

Keeping in view the limitation of resources and the time frame of six months at our disposal, it was decided that we should concentrate our efforts in a smaller geographic area and saturate it. A rural remote block, namely Khol in District Rewari was selected with the objective of promoting quality and equality between girls and making learning a joyful experience. This was to be achieved by mobilising the teachers and the communities of the block. A school based programme was launched in all 68 schools covering 12000 teachers and 300 primary teachers of Khol Block in collaboration with the State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT) and the 59 Gram Panchayats in November, 1998.



This has been a mutually rewarding and satisfying experience for the three partners i.e., the UNESCO, the NCERT and the SCERT Haryana and has generated a low cost model for quality improvement in primary education and for promoting gender equality.

As regards the research trends in the country in the area of vocational and technical education of girls has received some attention in the Fifth Survey of Educational Research and provides both policy and programme interventions giving primacy to need based vocational education of girls and women to help them forge ahead in non-traditional occupations. Although girls and women have entered into hitherto male occupations, studies show it is not always on terms of equality. A lot more work is required in the area of gender analysis of existing vocational and technical education programmes supported through micro studies so that girls and women succeed in the occupational fields. Studies of occupational career guidance and counselling draw a blank. Studies on social mobility of women are few and studies about education and employment linkages in terms of entry requirements, recruitment and transfer procedures, wages, leave and other benefits as required under law, need investigation.

While there are a large number of studies showing the positive impact of women's education on their awareness, attitudes and positions taken on personal issues of marriage and family, the study of women as professionals are limited. There are several investigations on women teachers which are largely centred on the issue of role conflict between the familial and the occupational roles and role performance. There are few studies on women administrators and executives in education or in other development fields which shows that there is lack of consciousness regarding women's contribution to development in real terms.

The researches and experience have proved beyond doubt that education is necessary for development of individuals and nations; that education is the basic right of all human beings—men, women, girls, boys, that education has brought about attitudinal changes towards women, girls and their development; that educated girls and women themselves become more positively oriented to accepting and at times leading change. Theoretically the Indian laws, policies and programmes are geared to an egalitarian social order where women enjoy not only equality but also affirmative action on the part of the state also. On the ground are large number of programmes

and schemes aiming at women's development, women's equality, women's empowerment with unqualified focus on education and health of the girl child. While these concrete programmes need to be studied there is still the major challenge of bringing about greater understanding and sensitivity to gender issues which is not a substitute for equality of numbers in all walks of life but involves a major qualitative change in the social roles and social relations between men and women in our society.

Educational content and processes need to be studied, not only textbooks but classroom practices, teacher behaviour, media both as a support and a hurdle need to be understood. India also needs to gear up to the numerous demands of a global market and strengthen its identity as a secular democratic nation. The economic reforms are on and there are requirements of structural adjustment programmes which are likely to dilute the social justice and welfare orientation of the Indian state. This would have implications for education and society at several levels. Gender and economic reforms is a major area for study. In more than one sense, the Ninth Five Year Plan is the proverbial last leap into the next century. Education of girls and women has to be viewed in this context.

Education of Muslim girls and women needs urgent attention as this section is absent even in statistics and is perhaps more backward than other disadvantaged sections which at least enjoy protective discrimination viz. scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and other backward castes.

Research has now to gear itself to supporting action through study, analysis, evaluation, documentation and dissemination. For carrying out the major task of building gender sensitivity a deeper study of curriculum, its development, its transaction in the actual classroom/learning situations would be required for preparing research based curricular and training materials. An inter country innovative pilot project sponsored by UNESCO does present a model for this task as operationalized by the Department of Women's Studies (DWS), NCERT during 1992-98. Seven six week training programmes on methodology of women's education and development for resource persons have been organised by the NCERT utilising research findings in the area and a participatory training approach).

There exists a mammoth programme for early childhood care and education (ECCE) in India covering nearly 18 million children, forming less than half of the target population (below poverty line).

Three major observations may be made (i), gender statistics on the integrated child development services (ICDS) are not available; (ii), the education component of ICDS continues to be weak, although the nutrition and health component appears to have benefited children from marginalized sections of population, the impact being visible in reduced infant and child mortality and near universalisation of immunization, and (iii), the component of gender sensitivity in the training of ICDS workers is absent. The research and development in this area can take on the form of needs assessment for training, preparation of training materials and designing gender interventions in the action research mode.

Conspicuous by its absence is the element of health and nutrition of the children in the elementary and secondary age group, especially during adolescence. School outcomes are not purely a function of academic and pedagogic inputs by the school but are in equal part influenced by the health and nutritional status of the children and adolescents. The low levels of nutritional intakes and attendant problems of depleted health status in conjunction with poor levels of health care in low income countries are factors that need careful study. In gender discriminatory cultures with a strong "son preference" behaviour, the intra household distribution of labour and resources is loaded against the girls, who work more and get lesser share of food, health care, leisure and play. For instance, iron status was predictive of school achievement among adolescent girls in a Jamaican study, that is, lower the haemoglobin value, lower the school attendance. In countries as far apart as Benin, Nepal, poor nutritional status was found related to school attendance of adolescents. One possible explanation was the long distances that these adolescents had to walk in addition to completing domestic chores. This greater energy expenditure was not compensated by greater energy intake, probably because there were no meals at school. The Mexico study showed that improved nutritional food supplementation in early childhood was related to higher cognitive development, a precursor of school achievement. Gender differences were also notable indicating unequal division of food and health care except in cultures like Philippines with a thoroughly pro girl child stance of the family — a logical result of the tradition where the parents in their old age are looked after by the daughters and not by the sons. The Indian situation in the study reflects the health and nutrition status of the girl from an urban slum. Studies of the rural adolescent girls in school and

outside are needed for planning gender sensitive health and nutrition interventions in the educational programmes for the development of high quality human resource. This set of inter country studies by ICRW shows a definite link between educational achievement and health and nutritional status of children (Ibid).

Considerable work done in the area of UEE suggests a continuous need for research based educational planning at district, block and cluster level. An important area requiring attention is the formal transfer of elementary and secondary education to the panchayats and local bodies (with one third women members and chairpersons). Gender sensitization of panchayat members and councillors is not only urgent but needs research based interventions.

In rural areas, there is continued shortage of women teachers. The Sixth All India Educational Survey, NCERT, 1995 found that women formed 23% of primary teachers in rural areas compared to 60% in urban areas, at the upper primary the corresponding figures are 25% and 59%. A major study has been completed on the problems related to recruitment and posting of women teachers at the elementary stage in rural areas of the four most populous, low female literacy states of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh. The study finds that while some effort is being made to draw more women teachers into teaching at the recruitment point and even in teacher training institutions, the real malaise is the low and extremely poor outreach of rural girls to post primary education in rural areas and these girls are unable to complete higher secondary (12 Years) level which is the entry requirement for primary teacher's training. The urban girls who are better off manage to get recruited but pose a major problem by resisting posting to rural areas and even when they are posted, they manage to return to the urban areas where their families are. The problem thus is more basic and needs expansion of access to post primary education through distance education for girls in rural areas, more residential schools at the block level and special schemes for identifying meritorious rural girls at the middle stage for being prepared as teachers through a four to six years general education cum teacher training programme in residential schools (Nayar, 1998).

In view of the promises made and the potential and actual participation of women in extra domestic spheres, the education and training of girls will have to be geared more and more to development of technical and technological skills and above all

abilities of leadership, decision making, entrepreneurship and handling of public roles. The studies on second and third level vocational, technical and professional education are not sufficient to provide guidance for formulation of policies and programmes. These will have to be area specific and generic both. Many more studies are required for mapping out the interaction between education of women, media, women's movement and political participation, for the agenda now is not only emancipation on moral grounds but a clear demand for freedom from poverty and want on the part of women, and, a frank avowal of the need for participating in the economic and political decisions about women, about men, about nations, about the global questions.

The researchers have a host of national and international policy documents to look for research agenda (besides their own felt needs), the most recent being the call of the world's women from Beijing in the form of a Platform of Action, which gives a clear mandate for action required for women's progress. It recommends twelve critical areas of concern which are considered the main obstacles to women's advancement. There has emerged a powerful recognition of the crucial role of women in sustainable development and protecting the environment; the recognition that the human rights of women are inalienable, integral and individual part of universal human rights; that violence against women is intolerable and a violation of these rights, that health, maternal care, reproductive choices and above all access to education and information are absolutely essential to the exercise by women of this fundamental right.

Considering, education is by definition conservative, slow to change and status quoist, transforming it into a radical change agent as expected in the NPE, 1986 is a difficult task. The application of the concepts and constructs of women's studies born in the tradition of action and activism to educational process has to be carefully planned. Militancy is not an educational mode. Organised peaceful protest based on deep understanding and analysis of issues of social justice, human rights, gender equality, is perhaps needed nonetheless. Educational research has to respond at several levels, the required changes in curriculum and its transaction, the need for radical change in the gender perceptions of teachers and teacher educators, and linkages with and action required by other socializing agents, the parents, the community, the media.

Even though education of girls and women is considered as the key to all development, it does not receive resource allocations commensurate with its importance. Studies on financing of girls education are needed for better resource allocations so that this area graduates from being a policy rhetoric to a planned implementation reality. All educational programmes claiming gender as a focus need careful study from this angle. A study of basic issues in the education of women and girls in the Asia and Pacific Region commissioned by the UNESCO brings out clearly that female literacy is dependent on the social policies and ideological persuasions regarding the roles and status of women in a particular culture. Female literacy has been achieved in countries with extremely low levels of income but with strong distributive social policies on health, education, training and employment. That 'education for all' cannot be achieved without 'health for all' and 'work for all' needs to be internalized. As the poverty of nations affects women and girls most in gender discriminatory societies, the national and international commitment has to address the question of better redistribution of the global and the national GDP. Women's education is a function of women's equality, which will not come about by mere provision of rights but by the ability of women to use those rights. The study makes a strong appeal to national leadership and the international organizations to address themselves to the gender question more squarely, both in policy and implementation as studies in the economics of education tell us that both private and social returns to women's education are greater than those for men at virtually every level and 'at most' equal to those for men.

The women's studies scholars and educational researchers are to rise to the occasion through mutual interaction, feeding into the growth of both disciplines as well as all social sciences and pushing the advancement of women/humans further. The role of Comparative Education in identifying and clarifying issues of women's education and equality in societies like India in a state of permanent transition where tradition and modernity both exercise equal and opposite pulls where tradition at times triggers modernization or gets modernized itself. In a heterogeneous country like India with a wide range of diverse cultural practices and traditions ranging from gender equalitarian matrilineal cultures to strongly patriarchal, patrilineal dominant groups, intra country comparisons are as valid as international comparisons.

## SECTION FIVE

### **Critical Areas : Proposed Interventions**

This document reviewed the progress of girls' education in India during the last five decades with special focus on the 1990s when much happened in the wake of the NPE 1986 and its POA which committed the national system of education to work for women's equality and empowerment through pro active policies and programmes, to remove historical distortions and the cumulative disadvantage of women. The 1990s also heralded the SAARC Decade of the Girl Child (1991-2000) and saw many fresh EFA initiatives in the Post Jomtien period. *Section one* looked at the policy framework and configuration of policy measures and programmes for education of girls and women's empowerment during the last fifty years and during the post Jomtien period. *Section two* reviewed the progress and shortfalls in the area of education of girls in India, both in its quantitative and qualitative dimensions. *Section Three* gives a glimpse of the Indian effort to operationalize women's equality through the curriculum and its transaction. *Section Four* reports some of the researches and the gaps therein. *Section Five* summates the critical issues and proposed interventions

Indicators employed for Gender Audit of education of girls are: (a) access— growth rate of male female enrolments at all stages and in all types of education; girls as percentage to total both in school and out of school; enrolment ratios, dropout rates/retention, internal efficiency ; achievement levels at the elementary stage; (b) participation of girls in second and third level general, technical and professional education, and, (c) measures to enhance women's empowerment and promoting gender equality through curriculum. Against the broad findings noted therein, we look at the critical areas needing our attention and some suggested interventions.

## Referents

- The Constitution of India Equality between sexes and protective discrimination; free and compulsory education to all children up to age fourteen
- India's ratification of major international conventions
- National Policy on Education 1986 and its Programme of Action- Education for Women's Equality-Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE); Removal of Illiteracy; Universalisation of Elementary Education; growth and application of women's studies
- National Literacy Mission 1988- Total Literacy Campaigns
- SAARC Decade of the Girl Child (1991-2000) and the National Plan of Action
- National Perspective Plan for Women (1988-2000)
- Jomtien World Conference on Education for All 1990
- Policy Shifts from macro aggregative, centralized to decentralized, disaggregative planning with people's participation.
- Conceptual Shifts from welfare to women's empowerment; from woman to the girl child; from human capital to human rights; female education as investment and a development imperative.

## Inputs

- EFA initiatives with strong gender focus. TLC, Bihar Education Project, Lok Jumbish, Shiksha Karmi, District Primary Education Programme, Joint UN System- GOI Programme among others. These are innovative projects with innovative structures and innovative programmes; are process oriented and people centred; an attempt at decentralized community based planning and implementation.
- Further financial outlays and additionally international funding for gender advocacy for the girl child- demand generation. Impact C, ECCE (ICDS Anganwadis), Mahila Samakhya, Integrated Women's development Project, Haryana, and similar awareness generation and empowerment projects of all ministries of the Government of India and a large number of voluntary agencies.
- Special measures for children of the disadvantaged groups to include free uniforms, free textbooks, pre matric and post matric stipends and residential schools and hostels to be continued for another ten years. Additional incentives like free noon meal in all primary schools and free textbooks in DPEP districts.



- Alternative schooling and other innovations to educate girls and empower women NFE, Junior/part schools, Shishu Kendras, Education Guarantee Scheme in Madhya Pradesh, Mahila Shikshan Kendras, Balika Shikshas, Sahaj Pathshala, Prehar Pathshala, Saraswati Yojana, stipends to girls for schooling under the IWDEP Project of Haryana, Jagjagi centres of Mahila Samakhya, Bihar among others
- Education made free for girls at all levels
- Reservation of seats in technical courses in some states and a one third quota in government/public sector jobs.
- International funding for technical education and skill development among women and girls
- Policy research, gender sensitization and orientation of educational personnel and mobilization of women and the communities
- Gender equality through curriculum — Elimination of gender bias from textbooks and preparation of handbooks, resource materials and exemplar materials
- Role of women's movement and women's studies — NGOs, UN Agencies and other international funding agencies

## **Results**

- Breakthrough in literacy
- Improved access at the primary stage
- Enhanced educational participation among girls, faster growth at the school stage
- Reduced dropout, better retention among girls
- Closing in of gender gaps in enrolment, retention and achievement, more notable in EFA projects with girl child focus
- Girls are entering all streams of education and are even breaking ground in areas of technology
- Development of a positive self image and self confidence in girls as also higher educational and occupational aspirations
- Better presentation of women's roles and contribution to society
- A positive climate and acceptance of the need for educating girls by the parents, the communities
- Better sensitized teachers, teacher educators and the bureaucracy
- Adoption of a large number of pro girl child schemes and programmes by the Central and state governments.

**Issues That Remain**

- Accessing post primary education to girls in rural remote areas and from disadvantaged groups
- Illiteracy and lack of primary and middle level education is a major barrier in women getting access to secondary level general, technical and vocational programmes. This is more critical in case of rural girls where even middle school facilities are not available within village.
- Need for specialized focus on enrolment and retention of SC, ST, and OBC girls.
- Absence of data in case of educationally backward minorities
- Education of out of school girls in the age group (10-18 years)
- Improvement of quality in state and state aided schools
- Curricular reforms to make education more meaningful and relevant.
- The policy of undifferentiated curricula does not get translated into action on account of gender stereotypes that continue to dominate the thinking of the educators as much as the parents and the girls.
- There is still need for gender sensitisation of the educational personnel, the communities and the public at large.
- Further gender inputs into pre service and in service education of teachers and teacher educators; textbook writers and textbook production boards, CBSE and State Boards of Education
- At the secondary level participation of girls is affected in science and maths courses because of lack of facilities in girl's schools for science and maths teaching. Shortage of science teachers also poses a big barrier. Lack of adequate foundation in science and mathematics also keeps girls away from non traditional courses related to technology, para-medical, business, commerce and agriculture.
- Most of the training institutions imparting skill training are located in urban areas. In rural areas there is general lack of facilities for non-traditional skill courses.
- There are limited job opportunities in rural areas. Even the attitude of public and private employers in urban areas is not accepting female employees
- The programmes of skill development do not develop self-confidence and other complementary skills needed for self-

employment such as credit know-how, procurement of raw material, marketing, financial management, project formulation and management, etc.

- Parental apathy towards higher education and vocational education of girls is still there
- General absence of adequate educational and vocational guidance services in girl's institutes
- A weak link exists between training and employment, puts a negative picture in the eyes of parents who do not visualize the use of such an education.
- Range of vocational courses generally offered to women is relatively limited.
- Non-availability of adequate instructional material, lack of trained regular teaching staff.
- Poor quality of on-the-job training, weak school industry linkage This all results in non-achievement of targets in terms of both quality and quantity which terms vocational education as a "failed venture", especially for girls
- In addition, a 'home science' syndrome afflicts girls. A traditional gender bias dominates the vocational field also. In many states, a restrictive policy in providing vocational courses to girls is followed. Only soft options such as tailoring, dress designing, cooking, secretarial practice, etc. are made available to them.
- More often than not, a pre-conceived technological illiteracy keeps girls away from modern, technological and scientific courses.
- Lastly there is no national management information system for women in vocational and technical education as well as in professional employment. Gender desegregated data is not available either for monitoring of existing programmes or for future planning

### **Proposed Interventions**

- Put out a white paper on girls' education periodically.
- Draw up a carefully designed national plan of action with clear time frame, allocation of resources and assigning definite responsibility to concerned government agencies and involving NGOs
- The revised POA recommendation for setting up of women's/ girls education cells/bureaus in MHRD/Planning Commission/ National agencies and an inter ministerial/inter departmental

steering/monitoring group has not been operationalised. We need to do this at the earliest forthwith.

- Standing Committee on Girls Education of MHRD has never met so far. This should be activated. Specifically, to evolve coherent training policies and programmes for women need to be pursued. Further there is no coordinating mechanism for looking at the programmes of general, technical and skill development for women under a multiplicity of agencies and departments. The National Council for Women's Education which was functioning till 1974 needs to be revived and made a hub for holistic planning of education and development of women and girls.
- Inter departmental coordination and convergence of efforts is direly needed
- We need a strong cell/bureau in the Department of Education, MHRD and corresponding structures in the states/UTs to look at the problems of girls from rural areas, educationally backward minorities and other disadvantaged groups, with state counterparts
- Shortage of women teachers poses a major barrier for girls schooling in rural areas. Four year residential courses for middle pass rural girls be designed to prepare women teachers for the elementary stage in all three streams (languages, science and mathematics, social sciences) with pedagogical inputs). Some states are offering elementary teacher's training as part of the vocational courses being offered in school for general education at the higher secondary stage. A scheme of scholarships/ bursaries/ residential courses needs to be developed for meeting the shortage of women teachers in rural areas.
- Education—health — nutrition of children and adolescents— Lack of inter sectoral convergence
- Need to develop functional relationship by education department with the Panchayat Raj Institutions.
- Need for regular inflow of rural urban statistics
- Junior/part/alternative schooling in small unserved habitations
- Upgrade all primary schools to middle schools. Girls do not cross village boundaries ordinarily. The 3 Km radial distances for a middle school is forbidding at times due to terrain or reasons of personal safety. Moreover, we have to be practical that if all the feeder primary schools are able to retain all entrants in Class I

and nearly all of them pass out of Class V, the present serving middle school can by no means take in all primary school graduates. Further, there is enough evidence that girls continue on to higher classes wherever there are complete middle/secondary or higher secondary schools within the village.

- Make all weather motorable roads to all villages as a first charge and provide free school bus service to all elementary school children (Classes I-VIII) and to girls up to the higher secondary level. The trade off between expenditure on building additional 2 million classrooms/motorable roads and the large array of the existing incentive schemes needs to be studied. Let us help people to dig their own wells rather than live in the hope of receiving sporadic trickles of water and what is left of a scheme at the end of the delivery route.
- Girl's primary level boarding schools/ashram shalas are needed in extreme circumstances like scattered populations in forests, deserts, mountains, for instance. Successful experiments of Madhya Pradesh TWD blocks and Lok Jumbish need to be studied before taking any major policy decision.
- Need to move to block based holistic inter sectoral approach to education and training of girls and women.
- However, it is of prime importance to open exclusive *Balika Vidya* Peeths in every block with provision for general and vocational education up to Class XII with residential facilities for girls of the villages of the blocks, which do not have a middle or a high school. Vocational courses could include modern trades and among others elementary teacher's training, training as para health workers, Anganwadi workers, pre school teachers, Gram Sevikas, etc.
- One girls' hostel attached to a higher secondary school in each block to accommodate at least 200 girls from Class VI onwards.
- Let us not put the problem of education of Muslim girls under the mat. Census needs to give us figures about their single year age wise enrolments/participation rates for developing special strategies at par with other educationally and economically disadvantaged groups. Action Plans for blocks with heavy concentration of Muslim populations need to be developed and operationalized.
- Distance education potential is immense and needs to be tapped for educating girls living in difficult areas and the large out of school girls population.

- Schemes like *Apni Beti Apna Dhan* (Haryana), Rajyalakshmi and Sarawati Yojana of Rajasthan and similar other attempts to secure the fundamental right to life need to be strengthened and linked to education for long term effects
- Wherever Panchayats are even partially functional (even when lacking the teeth of funds) and have owned up their school, things have improved for children's education in general and for girls in particular. Greater cooperation and participation of PRIs is needed
- Articulation and organisation of village women around issues of daily survival include their concern for education of their sons and daughters. Mahila mandals/samooths need to be strengthened and revived as a major plank of rural development and women's empowerment
- Expanded programme of formal and non-formal vocational training for rural girls in health, employment, etc. Transition rates for rural girls need to be improved, both at middle and secondary level.
- A national programme of strengthening science and mathematics teaching in all girls school along with a scheme for meeting shortage of science and mathematics teachers in girls school. Special focus is to improve access of girls to secondary and technical education in rural areas.
- Studies are needed on impact of incentives; institutional structures/delivery systems to include EFA projects, open learning and alternative schooling.
- Effective strategy to reduce huge illiteracy of women to include provision of 8-10 years of general education
- Encourage participation of girls in non-traditional courses for there is need to provide adequate hostel facilities for girls to studying technical and management institutions.
- Provision of guidance and counseling services for girls also needs to be specially catered to
- Need to match policies with commensurate resources allocations, appropriate institutional structure and expertise.
- Need for adequate MIS on women education and training and gender sensitive planning and gender inclusive curriculum
- Educational and vocational guidance and counselling.
- Creating public awareness and acceptance of women in work roles. Create support structures for working women in the area of domestic services and child care in particular

- Adopt totally non restrictive policies while opening courses
- More courses leading to self employment
- Rural poverty and lack of employment opportunities in rural areas need direct and indirect interventions both. There is need to improve the out reach of basic services of education, health, housing, sanitation and communication to rural areas. A conscious effort needs to be made to generate employment and higher productivity through application of science and technology and setting up of rural industries and rural service as also relevant technical training institutions and programmes in rural areas
- As the case studies show, urbanization and more importantly industrialization gives rise to demand for literates, qualified skilled workers, technicians and professionals and additional services like banking, insurance, management training, etc. Women tend to benefit to the extent which the cultures are gender egalitarian and permit them to cross the gender lines in occupations. Political will and state policies determine implementation of national policies.

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Table 1

## Percentage of Adult Literacy 15+ Years

Sl No	States/ UTs	1991			1997		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Andhra Pradesh	50.4	26.4	38.4	58	35	47
2	Arunachal Pradesh	48.7	23.6	37.5	64	40	53
3	Assam	60.2	37.6	49.6	83	60	72
4	Bihar	50.3	18.5	35.1	60	27	44
5	Goa	81.2	61.5	71.5	92	75	84
6	Gujarat	69.2	41.6	55.9	77	49	63
7	Haryana	64.2	31.2	48.9	71	41	57
8	Himachal Pradesh	70.9	43.5	57.3	84	63	72
9	Jammu & Kashmir	-	-	-	65	35	51
10	Karnataka	63.8	37.5	50.9	63	43	53
11	Kerala	92.7	83.6	88.0	95	88	91
12	Madhya Pradesh	55.9	22.9	40.0	66	32	50
13	Maharashtra	74.4	45.3	60.4	81	56	69
14	Manipur	70.6	41.9	56.6	84	58	71
15	Meghalaya	54.1	42.6	48.5	72	64	68
16	Mizoram	85.5	77.4	81.9	96	94	95
17	Nagaland	66.6	50.6	59.3	92	72	83
18	Orissa	62.0	29.7	46.1	62	32	47
19	Punjab	61.3	43.4	52.9	67	53	69
20	Rajasthan	52.5	16.9	35.5	69	27	49
21	Sikkim	61.6	37.8	50.9	85	66	76
22	Tamil Nadu	69.9	43.9	57.0	77	54	65
23	Tripura	69.3	44.1	57.1	77	65	71
24	Uttar Pradesh	53.9	21.0	38.6	64	32	49
25	West Bengal	68.0	43.0	56.2	80	58	69
26	A & N Islands	75.8	58.4	68.4	100	93	97
27	Chandigarh	80.5	68.6	75.4	90	68	79
28	Daman & Diu	49.5	21.8	35.9	64	30	49
29	D & N Haveli	79.9	51.7	66.0	95	68	84
30	Delhi	80.4	61.8	72.2	90	72	82
31	Lakshadweep	89.3	66.9	78.4	97	91	94
32	Pondicherry	81.3	59.3	70.4	92	82	87
<b>India</b>		<b>61.9</b>	<b>34.1</b>	<b>48.5</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>57</b>

Source : 52nd and 53rd Round of NSSO.

Table 2

## Enrolment by Stages — 1998-99

SL No	States / UTs	Primary / Jr Basic (Classes I-V)			Middle/Upper Prry (Classes VI-VIII)		
		Total	Girls	% Girls	Total	Girls	% Girls
1	Andhra Pradesh	8797662	4222435	47.99	2525465	1090674	43.19
2	Arunachal Pradesh	152021	69103	45.46	48664	22067	45.35
3	Assam	3827015	1719815	44.94	1205843	504809	41.86
4	Bihar	10473252	3956475	37.78	2548580	808939	31.74
5	Goa	126161	60775	48.17	76186	35561	46.68
6	Gujarat	6146281	2656553	43.22	2153850	907165	42.12
7	Haryana	2092162	985913	47.12	925635	405031	43.76
8	Himachal Pradesh	694412	342556	49.33	351473	167408	47.63
9.	J & K	893005	373809	41.86	405698	151966	37.46
10	Karnataka	6501200	3106290	47.78	2417210	1098520	45.45
11	Kerala	2660385	1292849	48.60	1812103	874623	48.27
12.	Madhya Pradesh	10772999	4658794	43.25	3476476	1274271	36.65
13	Maharashtra	11896099	5711305	48.01	5264193	2440362	46.36
14	Manipur	256670	119440	46.53	113020	52720	46.65
15	Meghalaya	313978	156676	49.90	89207	45905	51.46
16	Mizoram	134770	63901	47.41	46114	22585	48.98
17	Nagaland	205286	99136	48.29	67003	32866	49.05
18.	Orissa	4080000	1689000	41.40	1296000	466000	35.96
19.	Punjab	2168072	1034374	47.71	1022509	470084	45.97
20.	Rajasthan	7204000	2546000	35.34	2314000	631000	27.27
21.	Sikkim	83075	39050	47.01	26115	13124	50.25
22	Tamil Nadu	6669704	3226939	48.38	3593865	1663823	46.30
23	Tripura	452421	206641	45.67	142978	64305	44.98
24.	Uttar Pradesh	13855668	5108954	36.87	4824960	1515139	31.40
25	West Bengal	8948677	4076623	45.56	2843016	1189844	41.85
26	A & N Islands	40150	19245	47.93	22891	10737	46.90
27	Chandigarh	63723	30654	48.11	34359	16584	48.27
28	D & N Haveli	25442	10967	43.11	6923	2648	38.25
29	Daman & Diu	15243	7135	46.81	6810	3166	46.49
30	Delhi	1324426	630556	47.61	623135	330423	53.03
31	Lakshadweep	8367	3822	45.68	4660	2116	45.41
32	Pondicherry	103561	49853	48.14	64417	30561	47.44
India		110985877	48275818	43.50	40353358	16345026	40.50

Source : Annual Report, 1999-2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI.

**Table 3**  
**Enrolment by Stages — 1998-99**

SL. No	States / UTs	Sec. / Hr. Sec. / Pre Degree			Higher Education		
		Total	Girls	% Girls	Total	Girls	% Girls
1	Andhra Pradesh	1850064	718493	38.84	563887	199786	35.43
2.	Arunachal Pradesh	27336	10711	39.18	3924	1011	25.76
3	Assam	853600	357014	41.82	190756	64427	33.77
4	Bihar	1492787	383287	25.68	688095	126038	18.32
5	Goa	62440	30346	48.60	14797	8783	59.36
6	Gujarat	1376837	571993	41.54	398671	182148	45.69
7	Haryana	659083	259940	39.44	156010	66767	42.80
8	Himachal Pradesh	278117	124231	44.67	68821	27898	40.54
9	J & K	227705	83349	36.60	48226	18104	37.54
10	Karnataka	1920087	835361	43.51	929617	487731	52.47
11	Kerala	1281495	660242	51.52	173195	99729	57.58
12	Madhya Pradesh	2112013	681274	32.26	274700	80174	29.19
13	Maharashtra	3355836	1383486	41.23	907890	343862	37.87
14	Manipur	71530	32780	45.83	27692	12955	46.78
15	Meghalaya	50048	23664	47.28	14324	6783	47.35
16	Mizoram	29110	14263	49.00	8510	3739	43.94
17	Nagaland	40737	18498	45.41	6780	2811	41.46
18	Orissa	1487500	551500	37.08	158731	39782	25.06
19	Punjab	776916	342721	44.11	180805	96270	53.25
20	Rajasthan	1212168	320301	26.42	210340	70666	33.60
21	Sikkim	10604	4865	45.88	1628	627	38.51
22	Tamil Nadu	2262255	1005038	44.43	371851	182902	49.19
23.	Tripura	87272	35272	40.42	18405	6915	37.57
24.	Uttar Pradesh	3274449	871432	26.61	968402	306000	31.60
25	West Bengal	1549543	429973	27.75	411795	170409	41.38
26	A & N Islands	15922	7580	47.61	1985	1028	51.79
27	Chandigarh	32889	16912	51.42	21491	12886	59.96
28.	D. & N Haveli	3193	1313	41.12	0	0	0
29	Daman & Diu	4613	1952	42.32	591	236	39.93
30	Delhi	1312710	700068	53.33	267798	131815	49.22
31	Lakshadweep	2786	1257	45.12	0	0	0
32	Pondicherry	45804	22316	48.72	10725	5576	51.99
India		27767449	10501887	37.82	7100442	2757858	38.84

Source : Annual Report, 1999-2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

Table 4

**Enrolment Ratio in Classes I-V and VI-VIII of Schools for  
General Education- 1998-99**

SL No	States/UTs.	Classes I-V ( 6-11 Yrs )			Classes VI-VIII ( 11-14 Yrs )		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	Andhra Pradesh	99.20	94.50	96.89	50.86	40.93	46.03
2	Arunachal Pradesh	121.94	107.97	115.17	68.20	64.90	66.66
3	Assam	118.78	100.16	109.63	69.41	52.42	61.12
4	Bihar	93.20	61.51	78.02	42.43	23.13	33.55
5	Goa	75.16	67.53	71.28	82.91	72.57	77.74
6	Gujarat	122.92	100.70	112.22	72.06	58.00	65.39
7	Haryana	82.25	84.05	83.09	67.17	61.09	64.37
8	Himachal Pradesh	96.14	88.29	92.10	88.49	79.72	84.08
9	J & K.	93.38	66.63	79.95	79.79	49.99	65.22
10	Karnataka	111.35	104.38	107.90	70.94	61.06	66.08
11	Kerala	88.69	87.00	87.86	97.15	93.24	95.22
12	Madhya Pradesh	119.58	96.46	108.35	75.03	48.09	62.25
13	Maharashtra	114.38	111.01	112.74	89.28	83.29	86.40
14	Manipur	100.17	84.11	92.00	77.31	68.47	72.92
15	Meghalaya	119.17	113.53	116.29	56.98	62.03	59.47
16	Mizoram	133.72	120.57	127.14	78.43	77.88	78.16
17	Nagaland	111.74	108.94	110.37	63.22	67.07	65.05
18	Orissa	109.53	79.82	94.91	64.79	37.43	51.31
19	Punjab	81.33	84.16	82.66	67.29	65.02	66.22
20	Rajasthan	125.52	75.68	101.82	78.57	33.60	57.56
21	Sikkim	137.58	130.17	133.99	72.17	87.44	74.61
22	Tamil Nadu	109.47	107.10	108.31	97.67	79.39	92.91
23	Tripura	118.73	97.47	107.98	66.67	55.92	61.36
24	Uttar Pradesh	75.97	49.31	63.35	48.88	26.41	38.57
25	West Bengal	100.06	87.01	93.66	56.99	43.60	50.50
26	A & N Islands	87.10	96.23	91.25	93.49	97.61	95.38
27	Chandigarh	62.38	68.12	65.01	59.25	66.34	62.47
28	D & N. Haveli	144.75	99.70	121.15	71.25	44.13	57.69
29	Daman & Diu	113.26	104.50	108.88	91.10	79.15	85.13
30	Delhi	87.17	86.97	87.08	64.47	84.15	73.74
31	Lakshadweep	113.63	95.55	104.59	84.80	70.53	77.67
32	Pondicherry	89.51	84.50	87.03	99.58	89.89	94.73
India		100.86	82.85	92.14	65.27	49.08	57.58

Source : Annual Report, 1999-2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI.

Table 5

**Enrolment Ratio in Classes I-V and VI-VIII for Scheduled  
Caste Children in the age group 6-11 yrs. and 11-14 yrs - 1998-99**

SL No	States/UTs	Classes I-V ( 6-11 Yrs.)			Classes VI-VIII ( 11-14 Yrs )		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1.	Andhra Pradesh	116 14	108 03	112 14	67 56	49 76	59 07
2	Arunachal Pardesh	32 78	29 57	31 45	29 45	34 38	31 45
3	Assam	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
4.	Blhar	80 32	54 22	67 94	56 30	31 36	44 9
5	Goa	111 89	101 80	106 86	76 45	59 46	69 62
6	Gujarat	110 17	85 74	98 31	108.18	88 94	99 11
7.	Haryana	84 96	87 55	86 17	70 11	58 73	64 91
8	Himachal Pradesh	86 48	74 52	80 56	80 13	72 51	76 38
9	J. & K	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
10	Karnataka	96 27	88 14	92 21	85 24	70.13	77 80
11	Kerala	90 07	86 19	88 16	100 20	95 42	97 85
12	Madhya Pradesh	122.58	98.13	110.72	93 68	54 65	75 44
13	Maharashtra	108 34	101 07	104 77	105 99	103 18	104 63
14.	Manipur	91 95	85.57	88 75	67 76	57 86	62 77
15.	Meghalaya	110 56	107.72	109 24	103.08	109 53	106 08
16	Mizoram	49 41	86.17	54 88	55 60	53 44	55 28
17.	Nagaland	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00
18	Orissa	105 22	95 48	100 38	72 06	44 26	58 23
19	Punjab	93 00	95 65	94 24	76 48	72 05	74 40
20	Rajasthan	112 91	70.70	92 92	79 31	34 69	58 66
21	Sikkim	118 54	107.21	112.61	70 48	57 53	63 88
22	Tamil Nadu	107 00	91.60	99 38	84 26	72 48	78 51
23.	Tripura	107 42	87 11	97.34	61 72	57 20	59 50
24	Uttar Pradesh	86 22	52 83	70.57	57 07	22 94	41 41
25	West Bengal	91.96	83 59	87 69	57.91	42.74	50 42
26	A & N Islands	0.00	0.00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0
27.	Chandigarh	108 40	99 90	104 28	83 94	82.37	83.20
28.	D & N Haveli	107.00	103.80	105 41	93 31	100.24	96 55
29	Daman & Diu	119 16	98 72	108 65	98 87	102.48	100 74
30	Delhi	95 58	85 38	90 64	64 45	82 76	73 15
31	Lakshadweep	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0 00	0
32	Pondicherry	112 62	108 69	110 66	103 85	92.97	98 38
India		96 55	77 95	87 57	72. 12	50 96	62.09

Source . Annual Report, 1999-2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI.

Table 6

**Enrolment Ratio in Classes I-V and VI-VIII for  
Scheduled Tribe Children in the age group 6-11 yrs. and 11-14 yrs. - 1998-99**

SL. No.	States / UTs.	Classes I-V ( 6-11 Yrs )			Classes VI-VIII ( 11-14 Yrs )		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1	Andhra Pradesh	92.56	87.06	89.86	51.21	25.58	39.05
2.	Arunachal Pradesh	120.05	94.02	106.30	87.67	69.66	78.29
3.	Assam	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
4.	Bihar	81.19	54.24	68.00	56.33	31.37	44.57
5	Goa	0	0	0	0	0	0
6.	Gujarat	111.39	92.01	101.77	67.84	52.40	60.39
7.	Haryana	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	Himachal Pradesh	89.10	68.79	78.98	58.56	51.33	54.97
9	J & K.	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
10.	Karnataka	87.26	72.47	79.88	110.89	86.39	98.83
11.	Kerala	101.07	99.37	100.25	80.28	77.68	79.02
12.	Madhya Pradesh	99.09	68.88	83.88	56.10	32.95	44.85
13.	Maharashtra	108.74	102.29	105.52	76.99	55.49	66.51
14	Manipur	96.13	80.77	88.48	62.82	51.49	57.16
15	Meghalaya	89.28	85.57	87.38	54.16	57.62	55.94
16.	Mizoram	123.37	112.68	117.80	78.00	69.50	73.58
17	Nagaland	111.81	102.59	107.16	76.48	73.55	75.01
18	Orissa	112.96	60.65	86.64	52.41	33.53	42.89
19	Punjab	0	0	0	0	0	0
20	Rajasthan	101.52	58.70	80.88	76.91	29.91	54.75
21	Sikkim	122.79	105.67	113.95	64.06	59.79	61.91
22	Tamil Nadu	114.76	100.61	107.83	78.68	56.96	68.17
23.	Tripura	108.45	80.61	94.50	56.97	37.42	47.25
24.	Uttar Pradesh	117.63	83.77	101.41	114.19	60.58	89.05
25	West Bengal	92.10	91.06	91.57	79.16	40.13	59.53
26	A. & N. Islands	87.75	63.47	74.72	76.30	64.61	70.18
27	Chandigarh	0	0	0	0	0	0
28	D. & N. Haveli	110.88	91.01	100.03	77.64	42.26	60.24
29	Daman & Diu	114.89	104.47	109.88	85.54	65.91	76.02
30	Delhi	0	0	0	0	0	0
31.	Lakshadweep	115.42	94.62	104.89	116.33	99.22	107.84
32	Pondicherry	0	0	0	0	0	0
India		96.89	73.22	85.09	63.37	40.48	52.20

Source Annual Report, 1999-2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI.



Table 7

**Gross Drop out Rates in Classes I-V in 1998-99  
( Provisional)**

SL No	States / UTs	Classes I-V		Total
		Boys	Girls	
1.	Andhra Pradesh	42.69	44.70	43.64
2.	Arunachal Pradesh	51.74	44.69	49.59
3.	Assam	40.87	42.43	41.56
4.	Bihar	59.39	59.26	59.35
5.	Goa	- 0.15	8.72	4.20
6.	Gujarat	40.79	33.98	27.75
7.	Haryana	14.30	15.59	14.90
8.	Himachal Pradesh	35.91	31.22	33.72
9.	J & K.	55.12	47.39	51.84
10.	Karnataka	26.34	27.77	27.03
11.	Kerala	- 9.30	- 5.20	- 7.29
12.	Madhya Pradesh	19.79	27.89	23.27
13.	Maharashtra	20.45	24.78	22.53
14.	Manipur	43.71	46.38	44.97
15.	Meghalaya	58.43	57.53	57.98
16.	Mizoram	51.56	52.07	51.80
17.	Nagaland	32.11	29.83	31.03
18.	Orissa	44.64	47.90	46.01
19.	Punjab	22.86	20.61	21.79
20.	Rajasthan	49.07	61.59	53.74
21.	Sikkim	46.23	62.79	53.98
22.	Tamil Nadu	39.02	33.55	36.53
23.	Tripura	49.44	53.69	51.42
24.	Uttar Pradesh	45.98	55.98	49.85
25.	West Bengal	46.17	54.15	49.92
26.	A & N. Islands	12.47	12.25	12.37
27.	Chandigarh	- 33.52	- 40.75	- 36.88
28.	D. & N. Haveli	28.34	48.07	37.37
29.	Daman & Diu	- 4.18	3.44	- 0.59
30.	Delhi	5.21	5.06	5.14
31.	Lakshadweep	9.33	8.98	9.17
32.	Pondicherry	- 6.65	- 4.22	- 5.46
India		38.62	41.22	39.74

Source Annual Report, 1999-2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI

Table 8

**Gross Drop out Rates in Classes I-VIII and I - X in 1998-99**  
( Provisional)

SL. No.	States / UTs	Classes I-VIII			Classes I-X		
		Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total
1.	Andhra Pradesh	72.68	74.10	73.30	76.52	78.65	77.44
2.	Arunachal Pradesh	67.47	65.86	66.78	76.09	78.67	77.20
3.	Assam	68.26	72.31	70.08	76.55	75.32	76.00
4.	Bihar	75.39	80.12	77.06	81.44	87.26	83.47
5.	Goa	4.70	11.25	7.88	41.69	42.45	42.06
6.	Gujarat	56.70	64.75	60.30	70.12	74.96	72.29
7.	Haryana	19.92	29.08	24.10	45.24	55.98	50.04
8.	Himachal Pradesh	28.45	28.05	28.26	42.21	43.20	42.67
9.	J & K	31.73	44.25	36.86	61.47	70.24	65.10
10.	Karnataka	59.46	63.51	61.36	67.21	68.91	68.02
11.	Kerala	- 5.48	- 3.46	- 4.49	30.02	19.16	24.70
12.	Madhya Pradesh	42.41	57.07	48.64	60.37	75.22	66.73
13.	Maharashtra	34.78	44.09	39.14	55.02	64.22	59.33
14.	Manipur	45.36	47.02	46.15	76.35	76.74	76.54
15.	Meghalaya	77.71	78.11	77.91	62.12	63.74	62.89
16.	Mizoram	68.50	65.75	67.20	73.85	71.10	72.56
17.	Nagaland	46.46	38.95	42.98	63.84	60.98	62.59
18.	Orissa	65.32	72.10	68.02	52.42	52.05	52.27
19.	Punjab	26.61	29.39	27.91	39.99	44.35	42.02
20.	Rajasthan	55.52	68.10	59.72	77.63	82.74	79.29
21.	Sikkim	70.85	63.31	67.37	89.38	89.00	89.21
22.	Tamil Nadu	26.05	34.81	30.13	57.72	58.35	58.01
23.	Tripura	69.58	71.06	70.26	79.94	83.95	81.78
24.	Uttar Pradesh	50.55	57.90	53.11	55.13	72.68	61.25
25.	West Bengal	70.26	78.25	74.20	78.50	88.03	82.73
26.	A. & N. Islands	23.24	28.10	25.61	47.85	44.63	46.32
27.	Chandigarh	5.51	- 3.26	1.40	13.17	7.83	10.61
28.	D. & N. Haveli	57.34	63.09	59.79	76.58	79.00	77.65
29.	Daman & Diu	- 6.50	6.82	- 0.17	47.34	46.33	46.88
30.	Delhi	19.90	9.13	14.49	- 40.92	- 68.20	- 54.13
31.	Lakshadweep	19.46	24.69	21.86	56.43	54.89	55.69
32.	Pondicherry	- 2.11	- 2.05	- 2.08	37.71	35.73	36.78
India		60.09	56.82	65.44	70.22	67.44	

Source : Annual Report, 1999-2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI.

**Table 9**  
**Teachers by Stages—1998-99**

SL.	States / UTs	Primary			Middle			Sec / Hr. Sec		
		Total	Female	%Female	Total	Female	%Female	Total	Female	%Female
1	Andhra Pradesh	135690	46262	34.1	62845	26726	42.5	132559	52917	39.9
2	Arunachal Pradesh	2949	759	25.7	2338	613	26.2	3179	753	23.7
3	Assam	86934	24239	27.9	59154	9930	16.8	83570	16690	20.0
4	Bihar	115486	22158	19.2	99181	22625	22.8	45491	7033	15.5
5	Goa	2820	1951	69.2	748	515	68.9	7902	4584	58.0
6	Gujarat	35040	17450	49.8	142200	69618	49.0	65231	15893	24.4
7	Haryana	45956	23039	50.1	7963	2711	34.0	52135	21840	41.9
8	Himachal Pradesh	23173	9253	39.9	5620	1319	23.5	18190	5702	31.4
9	J & K	22113	8225	37.2	23362	8824	37.8	24022	7521	31.3
10	Karnataka	60540	26408	43.6	142580	65823	46.2	84505	23839	28.2
11	Kerala	45226	31987	70.7	48651	32333	66.5	149712	66966	44.7
12	Madhya Pradesh	231564	66991	28.9	108279	32262	29.8	90470	25911	28.6
13	Maharashtra	176127	88513	50.3	179091	71636	40.0	248354	76153	30.7
14	Manipur	9660	3339	34.6	6722	2377	35.4	10358	3864	37.3
15	Meghalaya	10966	5152	47.0	4558	1804	39.6	5574	2772	49.7
16	Mizoram	4818	2348	48.7	4918	1255	25.5	2867	670	23.4
17	Nagaland	6847	2794	40.8	4881	2011	41.2	5308	2111	39.8
18	Orissa	111040	27505	24.8	38914	5724	14.7	59263	12746	21.5
19	Punjab	45524	28493	62.6	15349	7874	51.3	63405	33281	52.5
20	Rajasthan	101064	30985	30.7	109136	28144	25.8	95314	27182	28.5
21	Sikkim	3482	1583	45.5	1701	621	36.5	2588	911	35.2
22	Tamil Nadu	115739	47971	41.5	61719	29782	48.3	139513	60733	43.5
23	Tripura	10582	2423	22.9	8827	1973	22.4	18017	5560	30.9
24	Uttar Pradesh	312669	79022	25.3	103943	23327	22.4	140373	26485	18.9
25	West Bengal	149071	34582	23.2	23029	6135	26.6	124486	31915	25.6
26	A. & N Islands	844	399	47.3	715	381	53.3	2617	1255	48.0
27	Chandigarh	416	384	92.3	558	497	89.1	4910	3905	79.5
28	D. & N Haveli	217	70	32.3	447	255	57.1	178	69	38.8
29	Daman & Diu	3174	209	6.6	181	68	37.6	292	107	36.6
30	Delhi	34056	21657	63.6	8710	5675	65.2	62444	37659	60.3
31	Lakshadweep	290	121	41.7	110	55	50.0	455	100	22.0
32	Pondicherry	2289	1394	60.9	1474	773	52.4	4596	2291	49.9
India		1903539	657666	34.6	1277904	463666	36.3	1747879	579418	33.2

Source : Annual Report, 1999-2000, Department of Education, MHRD, GOI.